

T H E
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THIS work reflects considerable credit on its author, who has already been successful in the same pursuits. Mr. Pennant's first design was to become the zoologist of North America, while, as a Briton, he could lay some claim to the sovereignty of that vast tract; but since the revolutions on this continent have deprived him of his dominions, he is become a citizen of the world: he is now only confined by an imaginary limit, and occasionally steps beyond it. Perhaps, on account of his first disappointment, he seems to show, in every line where the subject will permit, the indignation and sorrow which he feels for the separation of America. To us, who wish to view every subject in the most pleasing light, there are many sources of consolation. The present work affords one, which though inconsiderable, is worth mentioning; for had the first design only been completed, we should probably have been deprived of a great share of the information and entertainment which we received from the introduction: not to add, that the pleasure which we always feel from accompanying our intelligent naturalist, must increase with the extent of his researches.

His first object was to describe the animals of North America only; but he has extended his plan to the farthest limits of the arctic world, including those of Kamtschatka and the western coasts of America. These he examines not merely as a naturalist, but frequently as a philosopher: an union which is always desirable, though it be not a very frequent occurrence. The introduction contains a fancied voyage, which has great merit, as it comprehends a philosophical description of the countries inhabited by those animals which the author afterwards describes. This kind of geography, though highly rational, and affording to the speculative mind great entertainment, has seldom been attended to. We gave a specimen

of it in our review of captain Cook's last voyage; for we thought it would be a more instructive account of this celebrated navigator's great attempts, than we could give by extracting a description of the night-dance, or the procession of the chiefs of Owhyhee. To these articles, in the fifty-eighth Volume of our Journal, we shall have frequent occasion to refer. Our author sets out from London, and describes the eastern coasts of England and Scotland, the appearance of Shetland, the Feroe Islands, and Iceland, which he supposes, with great reason, to be the Ultima Thule. From thence he returns to the straits of Dover, and examines the opposite coasts of Flanders, Holland, Germany, and Jutland; the coasts of the Baltic, including the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland. He then goes along the winding and extensive coast of Norway, to the North Cape. From thence he 'takes his departure' for the Cherie islands, and Spitzbergen, and returns to the Cape, again to proceed in order to the White Sea, the mouth of the Lena, the Icy Sea, and Tschutski-nofs. From thence along a coast which we have already described, he extends his voyage to the southern extremity of Kamtschatka, examining the intermediate islands, and the famous strait. On the coast of America, he begins his description at California, and proceeds, in captain Cook's tract, to Icy Cape. From thence he steps to Coppermine river, to Greenland, and America: the survey of the eastern coast of America is finished at the Bay of Fundy.

This is an abstract of our author's philosophical voyage, which abounds with just reflections, accurate observations, and splendid descriptions, in his own peculiar energetic language. By a modern polish, the language would probably lose its force; but it would be also free from striking anomalies, both of spelling and construction. We agree with him in many respects, but sometimes think him mistaken. He chiefly fails, in considering the objects in detail, without observing the effects of each change on the neighbouring coasts. As our own situation is of the greatest consequence to us, we shall select a specimen from the first part; and it will give us an opportunity of explaining the objection which we have just mentioned.

'Let me take my departure northward, from the straits of Dover, the site of the isthmus of the once peninsulated Britain. No certain cause can be given for the mighty convulsion which tore us from the continent: whether it was rent by an earthquake, or whether it was worn through by the continual dashing of the waters, no Pythagoras is left to solve the *Fortuna locorum*:

'Vidi ego, quod fuerat quondam solidissima tellus
Essi fretum.'

But

But it is probable, that the great philosopher alluded to the partial destruction of the *Atlantica insula*, mentioned by Plato as a distant tradition of his days. It was effected by an earthquake and a deluge, which might have rent asunder the narrow isthmus in question, and left Britain, large as it seems at present, the mere wreck of its original size. The Scilly isles, the Hebrides, Orknies, Schetland, and perhaps the Feroe islands, may possibly be no more than fragments of the once far-extended region. I have no quarrel about the word *island*. The little isthmus, compared to the whole, might have been a junction never attended to in the limited navigations of very early times. The peninsula had never been wholly explored, and it passed with the ancients for a genuine island. The correspondence of strata on part of the opposite shores of Britain and France, leaves no room to doubt but that they were once united. The chalky cliffs of Blancnez, between Calais and Bologne, and those to the westward of Dover; exactly tally: the last are vast and continued; the former short, and the termination of the immense bed. Between Bologne and Folkestone (about six miles from the latter) is another memorial of the junction of the two countries; a narrow submarine hill, called the Rip-raps, about a quarter of a mile broad, and ten miles long, extending eastwards towards the Goodwin Sands. Its materials are boulder-stones, adventitious to many strata. The depth of water on it, in very low spring tides, is only fourteen feet. The fishermen from Folkestone have often touched it with a fifteen feet oar; so that it is justly the dread of navigators. Many a tall ship has perished on it, and sunk instantly into twenty-one fathoms water. In July 1782, the *Bellisle* of sixty-four guns struck, and lay on it during three hours; but by starting her beer and water, got clear off.'

If we survey the situation of England and Ireland, we shall find vast bays on the western side, trending west and north-west. The chain of islands from Ireland to Iceland, including the western islands of Scotland and the isles of Feroe, are obviously the remains of a vast continent, partly overwhelmed, and of which the highest lands are only visible. This is the opinion of our author; and it is so obvious from inspection only, that it could not escape a philosophical geographer: it is confirmed by the enquiries of the mineralogist, who generally finds the sides abrupt and craggy, and the strata frequently corresponding to those of the neighbouring island. We have already remarked, that there seems to have been a continued motion of the sea, from the equator to the poles; and, from the situation of our island, this motion must increase the impetus of the sea on its western coast; for, whether by increasing the bulk, and consequently the momentum of the northern Atlantic, it acts directly on the shore, or rever-

berating from the solid barrier of the frozen ocean, it indirectly increases the impetus; yet in either way, it must produce the same effect. In this view then, we must consider the British Channel as a vast bay, in which the sea has followed its usual course. In every part of the English shore we find marks of an incroaching tide; and the rocks of Guernsey consist of primæval granite, which composes so large a share of the adjoining continent. The German Ocean was another bay, in a contrary direction, derived from the reverberated current; and the old isthmus, as Mr. Pennant observes, was broken through by the united force of those opposite tides. But we cannot think that it was chiefly effected by the northern current, though the tides at present meet in the English channel; for we are informed by Dr. Wallis, that they formerly met in the German Ocean, and, by their concurrence, formed the Dogger Banks, off the coast of Zealand. To allege that the reverberated current was not so strong as the direct, might be an unfair argument, because it depends on our own opinion; but there are better proofs of its inferior power, viz. the want of harbours on the eastern coast, which Mr. Pennant has properly noticed, without any view towards an hypothesis; and the existence of considerable flat grounds on the same coast, now forsaken by the sea. Mr. Pennant has mentioned, that the destruction of the isthmus must have occasioned the sea to have retired from those flat grounds which it had occupied before that event; but we think the consequences must have been more extensive. On the flat parts of the *western* coast we find marine bodies, and are consequently led to suspect, that the formation of the British Channel must have contributed to drain them, though it would not affect the deeper harbours. Again, it is highly probable, that the same convulsion must have lessened the force with which the tide was driven up the Baltic, and contributed to draw off the waters reverberated from the icy barrier, so as to lessen the White Sea. By these united causes, the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland were produced, which had been before freights, and formed a marine communication between the German and Arctic Oceans, to the East of the north cape. On the coasts of Kent, the changes we have mentioned are evident; and the fluxes and the refluxes of the tide seem to have raised the land very considerably. In our late review of the Philosophical Transactions, we mentioned the vast depth at which the water was at last found in Languard fort. The superincumbent parts were sand and clay; and that the water was pressed and confined by additional weight, is evident from the fact, that
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when the workmen arrived at the spring, it soon arose to the level of the present surface.

This separation certainly happened beyond the reach of historical records, though Dr. Wallis is willing to believe that it gave occasion to Plato's account of the submerſion of his famous Atlantica. We readily believe that this history is not entirely fabulous; and that a vaſt peninsula, ſeparated from the continent, may at a diſtant period, and in other countries, have been exaggerated into an event, ſimilar to that which he has related; but there are ſome circumſtances in the history which do not properly ſuit with this event. Plato expreſſly ſays, that *his* Atlantica was five days ſail from the Britiſh iſland; and that the ſun did not ſet there for thirty days together. Theſe two diſtincti- ons ſeem to point out ſome country far north of the extremes of Britain.

This enquiry has led us ſo far, that we can only remark in general on the other parts of our author's imaginary voyage. If his obſervations reſpecting the extenſive woods of the northern iſlands are well founded, we muſt ſuppoſe that they were once a part of the main land, or that ſome ſpecies of trees, which are now extinct, but which were capable of bearing both the ſpray from the billows, and the great cold, then exiſted. Either of theſe circumſtances are highly probable; but we have known ſome inſtances where foſſils have been miſtaken for wood; and would recommend a farther examination of theſe apparent trees.

Mr. Pennant ſtill adheres to the former opinion, that America was peopled from the eaſtern coaſt of Aſia; and his authority has induced us again to examine the queſtion, with all the neceſſary attention. But we ſee not the leaſt reaſon to change our ſentiments. Naturaliſts muſt at laſt decide. It is ſufficient to allege, that the preſent inhabitants of the oppoſite continents are very different from each other. The Americans in that part reſemble the Greenlanders; and this race at Nootka Sound joins another different from *it*, and from all the inhabitants of Aſia. Mr. Pennant has ſelected thoſe cuſtoms which are ſimilar; but they are ſo general, as to deſtroy even the probability that one nation is derived from the other.

There is another ſubject, on which we differ from Mr. Pennant and ſome other philoſophers of conſiderable judgment, viz. the former ſituation of the adjoining continents of Aſia and America. He thinks that they were once nearer to each other; but, in the ninety-ſiſt page of the volume before referred to, we ſtated the reaſons which we thought ſupported the oppoſite opinion. If our author wiſhes to eſtabliſh by this

means, his sentiments respecting the population of America; he must be aware, that this distance is not too great to confine the inhabitants; but that even a less would prevent the passage of many animals. If we examine these, and their several natures, we shall find the source of population still more obscure than before. We need not again allege the reasons for our opinion, and we have little to add to them. It is probable, that the general effect of volcanos is to raise the land above its ordinary level, and consequently to gain upon the sea; if this be the case, we shall find on the shores of both continents, marks of these operations. It is equally certain, that they sometimes contribute, by altering the ballance, to produce the opposite effect; but, so far as we can perceive, they gain on the land in those spots on which their ravages are exerted, and the inundations are in more distant places.

It is with more reason, that our author supposes a great part of North America to be gained from the sea; and this has been chiefly effected by the sea bursting through the land to the south of Florida, so as to form the gulph of Mexico, leaving only the high grounds in the form of islands, the greater and less Antilles, or, as we choose to call them, the Windward and Leeward Islands. This dereliction is particularly perceived on the neighbouring coasts of the Floridas and Carolinas; but is obvious in very distant countries. We suspect, with our author, that America is a new world, in more senses than is commonly understood. The following description is highly curious; and the reader will perceive, that it may be employed to establish some very important questions.

‘I must here mention the adventitious fruits, such as nuts and other vegetable productions which are brought by the waves to these shores, those of Feroe and the Orknies, from Jamaica and other neighbouring parts. We must have recourse to a cause very remote from this place. Their vehicle is the gulph-stream from the gulph of Mexico. The trade-winds force the great body of the ocean from the westward through the Antilles into that gulph, when it is forced backward along the shore from the mouth of the Mississippi to Cape Florida; doubles that Cape in the narrow sea between it and Cuba, and from Cape Florida to Cape Cannaveral runs nearly north, at the distance of from five to seven leagues from shore, and extends in breadth from fifteen to eighteen leagues. There are regular soundings from the land to the edge of the stream, where the depth is generally seventy fathoms; after that no bottom can be found. The soundings of Cape Cannaveral are very steep and uncertain, as the water shallows so quick, that from forty fathoms it will immediately lessen to fifteen, and from that to four or less; so that, without great care, a ship may be in a few minutes on shore.

shore. It must be observed, that notwithstanding the gulph-stream in general is said to begin where soundings end, yet its influence extends several leagues within the soundings; and vessels often find a considerable current setting to the northward all along the coast, till they get into eight or ten fathom water, even where the soundings stretch to twenty leagues from the shore; but their current is generally augmented or lessened by the prevailing winds, the force of which however, can but little affect the grand unfathomable stream. From Cape Canaveral to Cape Hatteras the soundings begin to widen in the extent of their run from the shore to the inner edge of the stream, the distance being generally near twenty leagues, and the soundings very regular to about seventy fathoms near the edge of the stream, where no bottom can be afterwards found. Abreast of Savannah river, the current sets nearly north; after which, as if from a bay, it stretches north-east to Cape Hatteras; and from thence it sets east-north-east, till it has lost its force. As Cape Hatteras runs a great way into the sea, the edge of the stream is only from five to seven leagues distant from the cape; and the force and rapidity of the main stream has such influence, within that distance, over ships bound to the southward, that in very high foul winds, or in calms, they have frequently been hurried back to the northward, which has often occasioned great disappointment both to merchant ships and to men of war, as was often experienced in the late war. In December 1754, an exceeding good sailing ship, bound from Philadelphia to Charlestown, got abreast of Cape Hatteras every day during thirteen days, sometimes even with the tide, and in a middle distance between the cape and the inner edge of the stream; yet the ship was forced back regularly, and could only recover its lost way with the morning breeze, till the fourteenth day, when a brisk gale helped it to stem the current, and get to the southward of the cape. This shews the impossibility of any thing which has fallen into the stream returning or stopping in its course.

On the outside of the stream is a strong eddy or contrary current towards the ocean; and on the inside, next to America, a strong tide sets against it. When it sets off from Cape Hatteras, it takes a current nearly north-east; but in its course meets a great current that sets from the north, and probably comes from Hudson's Bay, along the coast of Labrador, till the island of Newfoundland divides it; part setting along the coast through the streights of Belleisle, and sweeping past Cape Breton, runs obliquely against the gulph-stream, and gives it a more eastern direction: the other part of the northern current is thought to join it on the eastern side of Newfoundland. The influence of these joint currents must be far felt; yet possibly its force is not so great, nor contracted in such a pointed and circumscribed direction as before they encountered. The prevailing winds all over this part of the ocean are the west an

north-west, and consequently the whole body of the western ocean seems, from their influence, to have what the mariners call a *set* to the eastward, or to the north-east-by-east. Thus the productions of Jamaica, and other places bordering on the gulph of Mexico, may be first brought by the stream out of the gulph, enveloped in the sargassô or alga of the gulph round Cape Florida, and hurried by the current either along the American shore, or sent into the ocean in the course along the stream, and then by the set of the stream, and the prevailing winds, which generally blow two-thirds of the year, wafted to the shores of Europe, where they are found.

'The mast of the Tilbury man of war, burnt at Jamaica, was thus conveyed to the western side of Scotland; and among the amazing quantity of drift-wood, or timber, annually flung on the coasts of Ireland, are some species which grow in Virginia and Carolina. All the great rivers of those countries contribute their share; the Alatomwha, Santee, and Roanok, and all the rivers which flow into the Chesapeak, send down in floods numberless trees; but Iceland is also obliged to Europe for much of its drift-wood; for the common pine, fir, lime, and willows, are among those enumerated by Mr. Troille; all which, probably, were wafted from Norway.'

The extent of this quotation will prevent us from adding much more from our intelligent author; but we must not, in justice, leave him without a short specimen of his descriptive powers. We shall afterwards pursue this work in a future Number.

'The vast height of the precipices, and the amazing grandeur of the caverns which open on the north side, giving wide and solemn admission, through most exalted arches, into the body of the mountain; together with the gradual decline of light, the deep silence of the place unless interrupted by the striking of the oar, the collision of a swelling wave against the sides, or the loud flutter of the pigeons affrighted from their nests in the distant roof; afford pleasures of scenery which such formations as this alone can yield. These also are wonderfully diversified. In some parts the caverns penetrate far, and end in darkness; in others are pervious, and give a romantic passage by another opening equally superb. Many of the rocks are insulated, of a pyramidal form, and soar to a great height. The bases of most are solid; but in some pierced through and arched. All are covered with the dung of the innumerable flocks of migratory birds which resort here annually to breed, and fill every little projection, every hole, which will give them leave to rest. Multitudes were swimming about; others swarmed in the air, and stunned us with the variety of their croaks and screams. Kittiwakes and herring-gulls, guillemots and black guillemots, auks, puffins, shags, and corvorants, are among the species which resort hither. The notes of all sea-fowl are most harsh

harsh and inharmonious. I have often rested under rocks like these, attentive to the various sounds over my head; which, mixed with the deep roar of the waves slowly swelling, and retiring from the vast caverns beneath, have produced a fine effect. The sharp voice of the gulls, the frequent chatter of the guillemots, the loud notes of the auks, the scream of the herons, together with the deep periodical croak of the corvorants, which serves as a bass to the rest, have often furnished me with a concert, which joined to the wild scenery surrounding me, afforded in an high degree that species of pleasure which results from the novelty and the gloomy majesty of the entertainment.

[To be continued.]

Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXIV. For the Year 1784. Part I. (Concluded, from p. 167.)

Article XIII. Experiments on Air. By Henry Cavendish, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A.—There is considerable information to be derived from these experiments, which are new, original, and frequently conclusive. Mr. Kirwan objects only to one part; and, though it be a leading one, we think that the controversy is now nearly brought to one point, to be decided by experiment. The author's first object is to enquire into the loss of the air, diminished by phlogistication; and the next to examine the form which it puts on. It was the opinion of Dr. Priestley, that, in the process of phlogistication, fixed air was *precipitated* from that which was changed: the French philosophers have since suspected, that no fixed air enters into the composition of atmospheric air, as a mixt; but that a small proportion is only accidentally combined with it; and that, if any fixed air is discovered, it is generated rather than separated. Mr. Cavendish, in the paper before us, denies that any fixed air is produced by phlogistication of common air, except what may appear from its accidental impurities, or be contained in the substances employed for the experiment. The air, for instance, phlogisticated by the burning or distillation of animal and vegetable substances, is contaminated by fixed air, from the bodies themselves; but the calcination of metals, burning of sulphur or phosphorus, the mixture of common and nitrous air, and the explosion of inflammable air, are not equally liable to exception. These processes he therefore examines in their order.

When these more certain experiments were made with accuracy, there was no reason to suspect that the diminution of the air was owing to the separation or production of fixed air; so that, after mentioning them, Mr. Cavendish soon proceeds to the second part, viz. to enquire into the cause of the dimi-

diminution. As there seemed great reason to think, that both the nitrous and vitriolic acids were convertible into dephlogisticated air, Mr. Cavendish enquired whether the pure air might not, by phlogistication, be changed into either of these acids. But, on examination, the suspicion proved to be without foundation. In the course of it, the author recommends to the attention of chemists, the neutrals formed by phlogisticated acids; and finds, from some of the results, that the acid in nitrous air is nearly twice as strong as in any other form. The cause of the diminution was, with greater probability, suspected to be a conversion of the *pure* air (a term which we shall use in future instead of *dephlogisticated*) into water. When common and inflammable air were exploded together, a loss of weight is said to have been observed, and the vessel employed to have been covered with a copious dew. In Mr. Cavendish's experiment the weight was not altered; but the dew was very conspicuous. We suspect however some inattention, for, in our experiment, the weight was really diminished; and as it involves some important consequences, we would recommend another trial. There is one circumstance worth remarking: when pure and inflammable air are used, the water is acid; but with common air it is free from every impregnation. The acidity is afterwards found to depend on the degree of phlogistication of the air: when it is entirely phlogisticated, the water is quite pure, and all the inflammable air, with one-fifth of the common air employed, seems to be converted into water.

To explain the appearance of the acid, we must premise some observations, from Mr. Cavendish's article.

‘ Before I enter into the cause of these phenomena, it will be proper to take notice, that phlogisticated air appears to be nothing else than the nitrous acid united to phlogiston; for when nitre is deflagrated with charcoal, the acid is almost entirely converted into this kind of air. That the acid is entirely converted into air, appears from the common process for making what is called clyffus of nitre; for if the nitre and charcoal are dry, scarce any thing is found in the vessels prepared for condensing the fumes; but if they are moist a little liquor is collected, which is nothing but the water contained in the materials, impregnated with a little alkali, proceeding in all probability from the imperfectly burnt charcoal, and a little fixed alkali, consisting of some of the alkalized nitre carried over by the heat and watery vapours. As far as I can perceive too, at present, the air into which much of the greatest part of the acid is converted, differs in no respect from the common air, which is phlogisticated. A small part of the acid, however, is turned into nitrous air, and the whole is mixed with a good deal

deal of fixed, and perhaps a little inflammable air; both proceeding from the charcoal.

‘It is well known that the nitrous acid is also converted by phlogification into nitrous air, in which respect there seems a considerable analogy between that and the vitriolic acid; for the vitriolic acid, when united to a smaller proportion of phlogiston, forms the volatile sulphureous acid and vitriolic acid air, both of which by exposure to the atmosphere, lose their phlogiston, though not very fast, and are turned back into vitriolic acid; but, when united to a greater proportion of phlogiston, it forms sulphur, which shews no sign of acidity, unless a small degree of affinity to alkalies can be called so, and in which the phlogiston is more strongly adherent, so that it does not fly off when exposed to the air, unless assisted by a heat sufficient to set it on fire. In like manner the nitrous acid, united to a certain quantity of phlogiston, forms nitrous fumes and nitrous air, which readily quit their phlogiston to common air; but when united to a different, in all probability a larger quantity, it forms phlogificated air, which shews no sign of acidity, and is still less disposed to part with its phlogiston, than sulphur.’

If this be true, it will be evident, that while any air remains pure, it will attract the phlogiston and precipitate the nitrous acid, of which kind the acid always appears to be, even when the air is procured from turbith mineral. The consequence, which Mr. Cavendish draws from all his experiments is, that water is in an intermediate state between pure and inflammable air. Pure air, with a small proportion of phlogiston, becomes water; with a greater, inflammable air. We have stated this as the more probable of the two suppositions made by our author, and that which he seems inclined to adopt; and it will be obvious, from the circumstances of Dr. Priestley’s method of reviving calces of metals by inflammable air alone, that this opinion cannot be greatly influenced by those experiments: if the water were really a component part of inflammable air, it would either continue in that form, or be deprived of its phlogiston by the metal, become pure air and be absorbed.

We have given a more extensive account of this paper than usual, because we think it will produce a material change in the opinions of philosophers; but we must be very short in what remains. Mr. Cavendish next endeavours to shew how acids act in producing dephlogificated air. It is not, he thinks, that they themselves suffer any immediate change; but only attract phlogiston from water and other substances, of which they are very greedy. Though we apply the generic term air, both to the pure and noxious kinds, he suspects that they are very different, and that common air is formed from
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the union of both.—This, among other proofs, appears from the effect of phlogisticating very pure air; for, in that experiment, it is not become noxious, but disappears and assumes the form of water.

‘It was just said, observes our author, that the same dephlogisticated air was reduced by liver of sulphur to $\frac{4}{5}$ of its original bulk; the standard of the air was 4,8, and consequently the standard of perfectly pure dephlogisticated air should be very nearly 5, which is a confirmation of the foregoing opinion; for if the standard of pure dephlogisticated air is 5, common air must, according to this opinion, contain one-fifth of it, and therefore ought to lose one-fifth of its bulk by phlogistication, which is what it is actually found to lose.’

The paper is concluded with some remarks on the mode by which light produces pure air from vegetables, viz. by enabling bodies to absorb phlogiston, from others less exposed to its influence. From an examination of some facts it appears probable, that light does not actually communicate phlogiston.

Art. XIV. Remarks on Mr. Cavendish’s Experiments on Air. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A.—

Art. XV. Answer to Mr. Kirwan’s Remarks upon the Experiments on Air. By Henry Cavendish, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A.—

Art. XVI. Reply to Mr. Cavendish’s Answer. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A.—

Mr. Kirwan, who, in a former volume of the *Philosophical Transactions*, attributed the diminution of the air in phlogistic processes to the separation or formation of fixed air, thinks it necessary to assign the reasons why he continues in the same sentiments. He first examines the process of the calcination of metals, and, as he finds fixed air in the calces, he is still of opinion that it is derived from the common air changed in the operation. It cannot be derived from the fixed air accidentally floating in the atmosphere, for that is in small quantity; what is generated or let lose soon disappears, and mercurius præcipitatus per se, and lime lose, instead of gaining it, from calcination. The appearance of pure air, from some calces, Mr. Kirwan has already explained to happen in consequence of a decomposition of the fixed air: the phlogiston contributing to revive the metal, and the air escaping in a pure state. This is indeed highly probable from its occurring only in calces, so very easily reduced to a metallic form, and is rendered more so, from a pointed experiment of Dr. Priestley. A decisive one from Mr. Laffonne is then mentioned, which we shall particularly transcribe.

‘ If filings of zinc be digested in a caustic fixed alkali in a gentle heat, the zinc will be dissolved with effervescence, and the alkali will be rendered in a great measure mild. But if, instead of filings of zinc, flowers of zinc be used, and treated in the same manner, there will be no solution, and the alkali will remain caustic. In the first case the effervescence arises from the production of inflammable air, which phlogisticates the common air contiguous to it, and produces fixed air, which is immediately absorbed by the alkali, and renders it mild. In the second case, no inflammable air is produced, the common air is not phlogisticated, and consequently the alkali remains caustic.’

Mr. Cavendish, in his reply, observes that the mildness of the alkali, in this instance, was only ascertained by its making a slight effervescence with an acid, which might arise from a separation of inflammable air from the metal; but Mr. Kirwan rejoins, that this is not probable, since the zinc was precipitated by adding the acid; and it is more likely that, as it was added slowly, it should attach the alkali than the metal.

The next process which occurs, is the mixture of common and nitrous airs. The fixed air, in Mr. Kirwan’s opinion, does not appear in this instance, because it is united to the nitrous selenite, which seems, from an analogous experiment, capable of absorbing so much air as would prevent the lime-water from becoming turbid; but, on varying it, the appearance was not so obvious. Mr. Kirwan, in answer to this fact, thinks, that fixed air, in a *nascent* state, is more capable of being absorbed than at any future period. When nitrous and common air are mixed over mercury, no diminution takes place till water is admitted; therefore, says Mr. Kirwan, the pure air is not changed into water.—Not on that account, replies Mr. Cavendish, but because the nitrous vapour is condensed only by means of water. It cannot be vapour, rejoins Mr. Kirwan, because it is not condensed by cold.

The black powder, produced by separating lead from mercury, by means of shaking it in water, is now found actually to produce fixed air; so that we need not dwell on the dispute occasioned by this circumstance.

Mr. Kirwan had alledged, that red precipitate, combined with iron filings, would produce fixed air. Mr. Cavendish, with reason, considers it as a very material fact, but attributes the fixed air to the plumbago contained in the iron, of which a large portion is air of this kind. In pursuing this idea, he actually found more fixed air from the plumbago, separated from a given quantity of iron filings, than when the same quan-

quantity of the filings themselves were employed. Mr. Kirwan rejoins, that more fixed air is found in this experiment, than is usually in the largest proportion of plumbago ever found in iron.

We have thus given an impartial outline of the more important parts of this controversy, from respect to the knowledge and abilities of the opponents. There are some other matters in dispute of less moment, which we cannot enlarge on. On this subject we ought not to decide, yet perhaps we may be allowed to add a few observations.

It will be obvious, that to determine a dispute of this sort, the nature of fixed air should be better understood. Mr. Kirwan always refers to Dr. Black's opinion of its being common air, combined with phlogiston; but to this there are many obvious objections, and Mr. Cavendish has not given his sentiments on it. On the whole, the existence of a doubt is rather an argument against Mr. Kirwan: a general law will appear in every instance; and there are many where no fixed air appears from phlogistication. Mr. Kirwan's answer on the subject of nitrous selenite is, we think, a tacit confession that fixed air is probably not formed in that process. The only experiment that will decidedly determine the dispute is, the calcination of metals in close vessels. If fixed air then appears, it will be probably derived from the air around, either changed by phlogistication, or modified by its connection with the calx. The examination of each supposition will materially elucidate the nature of this peculiar air, which, though first observed, is probably less understood than any other. But there is another view which may be taken of the same subject. We now see different substances, which we have usually examined as solid, put on the appearance of vapour; and it is highly probable, that *many* of the different airs have no more connection with common air, than one solid with another; they may agree in form, and be essentially different in substance. The great source of fixed air is the mineral kingdom, from whence it seems to be carried into the constitution of vegetables and animals; and probably some future experiments may find it to be a well-known substance, in a peculiar disguise. We should therefore be cautious in limiting our enquiries, and instead of looking up to the atmosphere alone for the origin of this species of air, we should vary our experiments, so as at last to detect the general law of nature from the midst of its numerous exceptions.

Poetry, by Richard Crashaw, who was a Canon in the Chapel of Loretto. Small 8vo. 3s. sewed. Bell.

CRASHAW lived before the middle of the last century. His works, now become scarce, are published by Mr. Peregrine Phillips, attorney at law (as he thinks proper to tell us), 'author of the Brighthelmstone Diary, &c. &c.' If Mr. Phillips had only multiplied the copies of a good writer, he would have deserved the thanks of the literary world; but, as he has brought an accusation of plagiarism against two of our greatest poets, it is necessary to examine how far they are guilty of the charge, and either to condemn them or their accuser.

'Something is due, he says, to works of merit, if not to the authors; and though it may be deemed wonderful, that writers of eminence in the English language, should have joined in a poetical confederacy, to divest this poor gentleman of his rights, and dress themselves in his borrowed robes, without the smallest acknowledgment; yet, how much will the wonder encrease, when the sweetest versifier, declaredly at least of the same persuasion, is found among the number; for whoever reads Mr. Pope's epitaph on Elijah Fenton, will be obliged to confess, that he has not only adopted the thoughts, but in some places the very words, of our author's epitaph on Mr. Ashton: Pope's feint praise might therefore be the most probable means of secreting his obligations to one, whom he affects rather to condemn, which appears by his epistolary correspondence, upon this subject, with H. Cromwell, esq. for the sake of candor it is subjoined: nor is this all, for Milton sold his copy of the *Paradise Lost*, April 27, 1667, above twenty years after the first appearance of Crashaw's *Sospetto D'Herode*, and the reader will discover how serviceable to that sublime writer it must have been: with sorrow we are constrained to add, he will not discover, that the service derived, or even the name of the author, was ever acknowledged: Dr. Young, Mr. Grey, and many other celebrated British poets, are in the same predicament; but to particularize further would be, in some degree, an insult to the intelligent reader; besides, this inquiry is instituted more to do justice, than to arraign; and happy is it for this enlightened age, that the present æra of religious moderation, will allow an administration of justice to the long-since departed.'

We will first examine the charge against Milton. Crashaw shews you plainly the 'devil in hell;' Milton pourtrays 'Satan in the infernal regions.' In the former he is the ugly, stinking, deformed, tooth-tail and claw devil, of old women and children; in the latter, he is 'no less than arch-angel ruined.' If Milton had received *all* his information concern-

ing

ing the infernal spirit from Crashaw, was there no merit in the imitation being so vastly superior to the original? Though the description in Crashaw is turgid, bombast, and ridiculous, yet there are many lines which are truly sublime, and of which Milton has made that justifiable use which one poet has ever made of another.

But the charge against Pope is more pointed and particular. His epitaph on Elijah Fenton is confessedly borrowed from that of Mr. Ashton. Mr. Pope has taken it without making his acknowledgments; and, if it was a fault, let Pope suffer for it. But pray, Mr. Phillips, is the taking another man's thoughts, unacknowledged, so great a crime? Consider, before you pronounce sentence. When we read your address to the reader, we recognised some passages in it extremely like what we recollected in a work we have had occasion to mention with respect, we mean the *Thirty Letters on various Subjects*. 'Was it from never reading Quarles, or taking his character from common report, that Pope considered his productions as the very bathos of poetry? Poor Quarles! thou hast had many enemies, and art now forgotten. But thou hast at last found a friend,—not equal indeed to the task of turning the tide, which has been flowing for an hundred years against thee,—not equal to his wishes for giving thee, and every neglected genius, his due share of reputation, but barely capable of laying the first stone of thy temple of fame, which he leaves to be completed by abler and by stronger hands.'

Now, sir, when you say *poor Crashaw*, to have not only the reputation, &c.—Mr. Pope led the *fashion*, &c.—'Truth will prevail, and *abler* advocates may be stimulated to assist in restoring literary merit to its proper station in the temple of fame, without respect,' &c. is it possible not to see in whose fields you have been poaching? If then you will acquit Mr. Pope of unfair imitation, we will return the compliment.—With regard to Young and Gray, we plead *ignoramus*: we cannot trace any resemblance.

Pope's opinion of Crashaw is nearly our own, so that we shall transcribe it.

'This author formed himself upon Petrarch, or rather upon Marino. His thoughts, one may observe, in the main, are pretty; but often-times far fetched, and too often strained and stiffened to make them appear the greater. For men are never so apt to think a thing great, as when it is odd or wonderful; and inconsiderate authors would rather be admired than understood. This ambition of surprising a reader, is the true natural cause of all *fustian*, or bombast in poetry.'

The

The best complete poem of Crafshaw is that in praise of 'Lessius, his Rule of Health,' which we will insert as a specimen of his abilities.

'Go now, with some daring drug,
Bait the disease, and while they tug,
Thou to maintain their cruel strife,
Spend'st the dear treasure of thy life:
Go, take physic, doat upon
Some big-nam'd composition,
The oraculous doctor's mystic bills,
Certain hard words made into pills:
And what at length shalt get by these?
Only a costlier disease.

Go, poor man, think what shalt be,
Remedy against thy remedy:
That which makes us have no need
Of physic, that's physic indeed.

'Hark hither, reader, would'st thou see,
Nature her own physician be;

Would'st see a man, all his own wealth,

His own physic, his own health?

A man, whose sober soul can tell,

How to wear her garments well?

Her garments that upon her sit,

As garments should do, close and fit?

A well cloth'd soul that's not oppress'd,

Nor choak'd with what she should be dress'd?

A soul sheath'd in a crystal shrine,

Through which all her bright features shine?

As when a piece of wanton lawn,

A thin æreal vail is drawn

O'er beauty's face, seeming to hide,

More sweetly shews the blushing bride.

A soul whose intellectual beams,

No mists do mask, no lazy steams?

A happy soul, that all the way

To heaven hath a summer's day?

Would'st see a man, whose well warm'd blood,

Bathes him in a genuine flood?

A man, whose tuned humours be,

A set of rarest harmony?

Would'st see blithe looks, fresh cheeks beguile

Age? would'st see December smile?

Would'st see a nest of roses grow,

In a bed of reverend snow?

Warm thoughts, free spirits, flattering

Winter's self into a spring?

In sum would'st see a man, that can

Live to be old, and still a man!

Whose latest, and most leaden hours,
 Fall with soft wings, stuck with soft flow'rs;
 And, when life's sweet fable ends,
 Soul and body part like friends:—
 No quarrels, murmurs, no delay;
 A kiss, a sigh, and—so away!
 This rare one reader, would'st thou see,
 Hark hither; and—thyself be he!

If about thirty lines were omitted from *Musick's Duel*, (a translation from Strada) the remainder would be still long enough for the subject, and possess infinite merit.

The Poetical Works of Samuel Johnson, LL. D. Now first collected into One Volume. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Kearsley.

THE poetical works of Dr. Johnson were generally published as fugitive pieces, and consequently were not subjected to our notice; but, at present, they are collected into a more substantial form, and of course claim our attention. To preserve the character of impartiality, we will suppose this volume, so far as circumstances will permit, to be a new publication, and Dr. Johnson's name hitherto unknown to us. The first in this collection is entitled 'LONDON,' and is written in imitation of the third satire of Juvenal; the second, 'the VANITY OF HUMAN WISHES,' an imitation of the tenth. The plan of these satires seems to have been suggested by Mr. Pope's very successful imitations of Horace. As they are of the same kind, and were published at no very distant period, it is fair to compare the performances of the two poets; and, in this comparison, we find the imitations of Horace infinitely superior to those of Juvenal. Johnson had not the genius of Pope, and entirely wanted his facility, which indeed nothing but great practice could give. In Pope, the most peculiar images of Roman life are adapted with singular address to our own times: in Johnson, the similitude is only in general passages, suitable to every age, in which refinement has degenerated into depravity. However, some of the imitations are very happy, and many of the lines are neither deficient in ease or energy. The following passage is, in our opinion, an instance of these several merits.

'Ingenium velox, audacia perdita, sermo
 Promptus—'

Augur, schœnobates, medicus, magus, omnia novit,
 Græculus esuriens, in cœlum, jussus, ibit.'

'All

' All that at home no more can beg or steal,
Or like a gibbet better than a wheel;
His'd from the stage, or hooted from the court,
Their air, their dress, their politicks import;
Obsequious, artful, voluble and gay,
On Britain's fond credulity they prey.
No gainful trade their industry can 'scape,
They sing, they dance, clean shoes, or cure a clap:
All sciences a fasting monsieur knows,
And bid him go to hell, to hell he goes.'

It is remarkable that the original of the second satire is not printed in this edition, for the imitation appears to be more close than in the first.

The tragedy of *IRENE* follows these two poems. As it is not uncommon to find entertainment in the closet, from plays which did not afford it on the stage, we hoped that *Irene* might be of this number: but we confess our disappointment. The piece contains many moral sentiments well expressed; nor is it without merit of another kind, though deficient in the grand qualification of dramatic poetry. It has nothing to interest the heart, or engage the attention; and we were surprised to hear a man of Johnson's knowledge speak of a *queen of Turkey*.

'Spring, an Ode,' is written in a more pleasing manner than any thing preceding it. Many of the Stanzas are exceedingly beautiful; as usual moral, and unusually pathetic.

'The Midsummer Wish,' (erroneously printed *Midsummer's*) is very inferior. It concludes with these lines,

' Sink on the down of Stella's breast,
And bid the waking world farewell.'

Jupiter became a swan to gain Leda, and Stella suffered a similar transformation to please her lover. Dr. Johnson would have told an inferior poet, that to 'sink on the down of Stella's breast,' was not the same as to sleep on Stella's downy breast.—There is a poem by the author of the *Fair Circassian*, which, by the title and other resemblances, seems to be the original of this before us; but it is greatly superior.

'Autumn, an Ode,' is better than the preceding, and contains many beautiful lines, though it detracts from the beauty of an English autumn. But we ought not to blame him on this account, since he abuses himself; for he is the last man who would have sought a refuge in wine for the troubles of life.

'Winter' resembles 'Autumn' in its beauties and defects. It again celebrates the praises of wine, and we again observe,

that Dr. Johnson was no drinker. 'The Winter's Walk' is much superior; but the second stanza is unintelligible, from 'thought' being printed for *through*, and 'in' for *is*.

The 'Song' is not much superior to other songs: we should scarcely have expected any thing so flimsy from our author, in his lightest moments. 'The Evening Ode,' 'the Natural Beauty,' and 'the Vanity of Wealth,' are in general elegant. The first was probably written in a town: 'purple wings' and 'curling streams,' are not images peculiar to that time.

'In his stead (the Sun's) the queen of night
Round us pours a lambent light;
Light that seems but just to show
Breasts that beat and cheeks that glow.'

This is an exquisite description; but the poem seems to have been the production of our author's youth. It is seldom we talk so feelingly from recollection.

The three next poems are occasional, and of course derive their merit, chiefly from local and temporary circumstances. The principal art, in similar performances, is to make a trifling circumstance poetical or witty. The doctor has very happily succeeded, especially in the last 'On the Sprig of Myrtle.'

'Stella in Mourning,' the verses to Lady Firebrace,' and 'to an elderly Lady,' are also occasional; but their merit is not considerable. The Prologues have been already reviewed by the public. They are scarcely objects of our attention; and we can only observe, that they are copies of Johnson's mind, clear and comprehensive, pointed and energetic.

The translation of the Messiah gained him reputation in the college in which it was written, and was approved of by the original author. The most exceptionable line is the first:— 'tollere concentum,' if allowable, is surely an awkward phrase for 'begin the song.' We recollect no authority for the use of 'tollere' in this sense.

The poem on the Death of Dr. Levet, as it was the last, so it is one of the best. It is moral and very pathetic. The following stanzas are extremely beautiful.

'Yet still he fills affection's eye,
Obscurely wise and coarsely kind;
Nor letter'd arrogance deny
Thy praise to merit unrefin'd.

When fainting nature call'd for aid,
And hovering death prepar'd the blow,
His vigorous remedy display'd
The power of art without the show.

In

In misery's darkest cavern known,
His useful care was ever nigh,
Where hopeless anguish pour'd his groan,
And lonely want retir'd to die.

No summons mock'd by chill delay,
No petty gain disdain'd by pride;
The modest wants of every day
The toil of every day supply'd.'

The epitaphs, as usual, consist chiefly of phrases tacked together from different classical authors. 'Postquam excessit *ex* Ephebis' (printed *et*) is so common, that it should have been left for authors of less learning. That on Dr. Goldsmith seems to us the best.

As this is the whole of our author's poetry, we presume that neither the quantity nor the quality will entitle him to a very elevated situation on Parnassus. When some historian shall add his life to the poets of Great Britain, we hope, for the sake of his future fame, that they will not be so rigidly exact, so minutely scrupulous, as he has been in weighing the merits of his poetical brethren. Dr. Johnson himself is not exempt from errors, similar to those which he has blamed in others. The concluding lines, on the Death of Dr. Levet, are exceptionable.

'Death broke at once the *vital chain*,
And forc'd his soul the *nearest way*.'

Since it is the soul which gives *life*, the chain that confines the soul is corporeal: the *vital chain* cannot be said, with propriety, to be broken by death. Dr. Johnson would not have forgiven an error of this kind in Gray.

The Mine : A Dramatic Poem. By John Sargent, Esq. 4to.
3s. sewed. Cadell.

OUR author has opened a Mine, as yet untouched; and the ore is of an extraordinary excellence and purity. We have seldom seen any with so little alloy; for it would come from the smelting furnace, after the most violent heat, very slightly diminished. To drop the metaphor, this new attempt to clothe the rugged science of mineralogy in a poetical dress, and to adorn it with suitable images, though hitherto accounted 'steril and unaccommodated to description,' is accomplished with success. The author combines a knowledge of science to a vivid imagination, and energetic language; and the pleasure we felt from the perusal of his work, was like what Robinson Crusoe's must have been,

when crawling into the cavern, where he expected noisome damps and poisonous reptiles, to find a spacious excavation, reflecting the light of his torch with unexampled brilliancy. The story is not new. It was first related by Mr. Everard, in Italian; and a translation of his letters on that subject were inserted in the tenth volume of the Annual Register. The same story was the foundation of a play, written by Mr. Henry Jones, which is now sometimes acted, with considerable additions by Dr. Hiffernan, under the title of the 'Heroine of the Cave.' Our author does not conceal this play, from a wish to keep it out of sight; for there is not the smallest resemblance between it and his poem, but probably because he was unacquainted with it. That part where the scene is laid in the mine, abounds with passages both pathetic and natural, without any reference to mineralogy, but of the most general kind. The dulness of the rest has prevented the tragedy from being frequently acted, or much applauded.

But, though the story be not new, the conduct of it is entirely so. The images are selected from natural history, with wonderful propriety: they are generally poetical, and well adapted to the different characters. Mr. Sargent has employed his machinery with great advantage; but the term requires an explanation. The superstition of miners, in these gloomy abodes, has embodied every hollow sound, every distant murmur, and given to airy 'nothings a local habitation and a name.' Milton mentions the 'swart fairy of the mine;' most miners have heard of the 'little old man, with a great head;' and, in Cornwall, the *smale volk* (small folks) are supposed to be no unfrequent attendants on these subterraneous labourers. Our author calls them gnomes, with the Rosycrusian philosophers; yet they are benevolent spirits, and their operations always tend to the good of mankind. In this respect, he somewhat differs from the Rosycrusians, but is very consistent with the legends of mines; for, when the *smale volk* are heard, they are supposed to warn the workmen of impending danger; and, if they do not desist, some accident is generally expected to follow.

Few are unacquainted with the story of count Alberti, as related by Mr. Everard, and that of the poem before us is little different. He is not supposed to know Juliana, who has followed him against his express command to this subterraneous banishment; and his distress is artfully heightened, by an attack of one of the miners on his benevolent sympathetic friend, for she appears no other, who, if she cannot relieve, seems to lament his distress. As Maurice, the name of the hero in this poem, appears to be her defender, by the

sug-

suggestion of the ravisher Conrad, he is ordered by the officer to work in the most dark unwholesome part of the mine. The gnomes who have watched over Juliana, and protected her, who have soothed her troubled mind to rest, and delighted her imagination with pleasing dreams ; these friendly spirits have been also sent by their queen to the empress of Hungary, and

‘ In the rich splendor of her blazing ring,
Beryl and flaming chrysolith have hid
Their glittering essence, and with heavenly skill
Have shot the beams of mercy o’er her soul.’

The event is obvious, and the conclusion consequently happy.

Of the conduct of the poem it is not easy to give an adequate specimen. The gnomes, at their first introduction, tell us that to them is given to

————— ‘ exert
Immortal alchymy ; the crisped founts
To crystallize, and point the glistening spar.’

But we would preserve the following song entire. Its picturesque and uncommon beauties would be lost by the slightest mutilation.

‘ Sylphs, no more in haunted groves
Boast your vegetable loves ;
Nor the bloom young zephyrs fling
O’er the vermil cheek of Spring ;
Nor the dewy fragrance, born
From the tresses of the morn,
Wheresoe’er our footsteps turn,
Rubies blush, and diamonds burn ;
Every grot and silver cave
Streams of milk and amber lave ;
And our bow’rs such perfumes give,
As mortals cannot taste, and live *.
From controuling seasons free,
We labour our high alchymy,
Nor borrow from the garish day
One beam, to light us on our way ;
But beneath the Atlantic flood
Wind our subterraneous road :
Our torch the phosphorus, our car
The jacinth, or the emerald spar.
Wond’rous toils we here pursue,
Never ending, always new ;

* * Some of the most noxious vapours in the mines are attended with a delightful smell, resembling the pea-blossom.’

Blending in our vast retreat,
Moist and dry, and cold and heat;
Till our skill prolific tries
All nature's contrarieties.'

The language has, in many places, the rugged energy of Shakspeare; but even when most tender, it is nervous and expressive.—I would, says Leopold,

'Delve the thick-ribbed rocks with fervent toil,
And hear the viewless winds incessant roar,
Imprison'd like ourselves within the depths
Of these perplexed labyrinths—could I abridge
Thy sorrow, and ransom our remaining age.'

Again; the following lines have seldom been equalled for strength and expression.

'Ye mazy caverns, scoop'd with endless toil
Beneath the solid rocks, each under each
Projecting, deeper than the wedging root
Of Jove's own oak e'er pierc'd! what do I not
Forego, to dwell within thy dark abode?'

We cannot resist transcribing the subsequent passage; for the images are strongly expressive of gloomy and majestic grandeur.

'See where our vallies wind, our Alps arise,
What meteors thwart, what suns emblaze the skies!
Here foaming cataracts the wild champaign shake,
There in diffusive radiance sleeps the lake;
Huge caves expand, thro' whose wide-yawning arch
Embattled hosts of mightiest kings can march;
The shadowy void deep-brooding darkness fills,
And smooths her plumage in the dripping rills;
In frowning state self-center'd columns glare,
Abortive echoes flutter in the air;
Their dusky foliage rocks fantastic wreath,
And quake, like forests, to the blasts beneath.'

There perhaps were seldom more happy expressions than 'frowning state' and 'abortive echos.' The last line gives the most tremendous idea of *that* blast which can shake these solid masses 'like a forest.'

Though we have extracted much, yet many striking passages, scarcely inferior, remain; and we have no room for the softer, the more common beauties—the quotidianæ formæ which we frequently meet with. It is a part of our duty also to discover faults: perhaps some of the lines are still too rugged, even for the subject, and some accents are improperly placed; but the eye that can see these defects must be insensible to the greatest merits of this new species of poetry. Our author cannot

cannot be called a plagiarist, for his imitations are general and allowable; but, independent of his general style, the admirers of Shakspeare will, in the song lately quoted, recollect the Tempest, and Midsummer Night's Dream; and we sometimes find him treading in the steps of Milton, with a grace and dignity little inferior to his predecessor. What frigid critic shall again assert, that the mineral kingdom is incapable of ornament?

The notes contain an elucidation of the scientific parts. In one of the odes, the Linnæan system of fossils is described, (such is the power of 'heaven-born poesy!') in highly pleasing and poetical lines. Indeed our author seems to have studied minerals in this system, and to have since become acquainted with Bergman and Kirwan. His outline is entirely Linnæan. He frequently quotes the poem *Περὶ Διδωυ*, falsely ascribed to Orpheus; and his translations from it are so smooth and elegant, that we cannot suspect the ruggedness of some part of this poem to have proceeded from any thing but design. On the whole, we have received pleasure from this work, and think 'the Mine' a valuable addition to the stock of English poetry.

A Treatise on Time. By Wm. Watson, Jun. M. D. F. R. S.
8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

THIS is a pretty accurate examination of an intricate subject, of a subject so fleeting, that the imagination can scarcely grasp it, which escapes before it can be subjected to the examination of the reason. Perhaps much is not to be added to the sum of science, by these abstracted disquisitions on what, if it exist, is chiefly relative to ourselves. It is with time as with space, we cannot easily conceive either distinct from the bodies which mark, or which fill them. Their existence, in general, seems at first sight, among those possibilities which are beyond the reach of the mind's eye; yet Dr. Watson appears to consider time, in this respect, too limitedly. We allow, that to us it is generally measured by our perceptions, and imperfectly by our ideas; but only by our ideas so far as they are the vestiges of the former, and consequently with all the languor and inaccuracy of a recollected image. But, independent of this mode of existence, time must also be connected with every regular and constant motion. It must depend, for instance, on the motion of the heavenly bodies, though we suppose no observer in the universe. This will be obvious on a very slight reflection. Each body, in motion, must move with some velocity, and successively occupy dif-

different spaces; consequently some time must be employed in this change, and the time being greater or less, in respect to the space passed over, will determine the rate of velocity. But, whatever may be the result, the progress is a proof of the existence of time, independent of an observer. It is perhaps time in the abstract; of little consequence to the world, though it necessarily exist. Again: we suppose, for instance, that so far as respects its inhabitants, the age of the world is very limited; but a slight examination into the constitution of the earth shows, that changes are constantly produced. In any given period however these are almost imperceptible, while the whole is sometimes so great, that it has probably been in a progressive state, far beyond the date of our first parents; for it is by no means inconsistent with sacred history, to suppose the real age of this planet very much greater than that of its first inhabitants. In this progress then, previous to the existence of observers, time is as distinctly marked as at any future period: though changes may have been produced more quickly or more slowly, it will not affect our original position, viz. the existence of time, not only independent of present observers, but of any future ones.

It is not easy to give a particular account of this little work. Dr. Watson considers first an instant, and then a 'flux of instants,' under the title of Perceptible Time; but perceptible time must be again combined to produce succession; and this part of the treatise seems to be executed with particular care. So far time relates to our own minds; but the subject is not complete, without considering it more generally, as it is marked by the celestial motions. This constitutes 'universal time, and a branch of it is 'imperceptible time.' If, for instance, any of the heavenly bodies moves one mile in a second, there must be a certain space of time in which it moves a foot; and, though this can be calculated, it can never be perceived.

Zeno's argument against motion is generally known; but it errs in its first principle. 'An arrow which tends towards a certain place, is in every instant in a space equal to itself.' This first sentence involves the conclusion; for, if it be *ever* in a given space, it is at rest. In fact, the very essence of its motion consists in its being never in such a state, since it does not arrive at any given spot, before it begins to move from it. Dr. Watson has, we think, treated this celebrated sophism with too much attention.

We cannot easily give a specimen of the author's manner, which is clear and correct, while the different subjects are necessarily so intimately connected. We shall make no apology
for

for laying before the reader the following step, in experimental metaphysics, as we may have frequent occasion to refer to it. The experiments were made by Mr. Herschel, to ascertain the *velocity* of our audible sensations.

“ The string being removed from the barrel of the striking part of a clock, I turned it with the key in the same manner as we do to wind it up, and beginning first slowly, at the rate perhaps of once round in a second, I attended to the distinctness of the clicking noise (if I may use that expression.) This being continued for about twenty seconds, I gradually encreased the motion till I had two turns in a second, when I again continued that velocity for a considerable time. After this I increased once more till three turns were made in a second, and continued that motion equably; and so on a fourth or a fifth time. It is necessary to have in view the motion of the hand of some clock, which points out seconds, as the rattling of the ratchet will not permit the observer, otherwise, to know how quick the handle is turning; and a long continuance of the motion is necessary, that the ear may, as it were, exert its faculty of perceiving so quickly, by a gradual increase of attention. The ratchet of the clock in question has only forty teeth; and I find that the motion of the hand cannot well be accelerated to more than four times round in a second, without producing a confusion in the rattle of the click, which can no longer be distinguished. This gives one hundred and sixty successive sounds in a second of time.

“ I have attempted another experiment on visible sensations. By means of the same handle and work of the clock, I caused a wheel in it to turn, till it acquired the velocity of once in a second, which was ascertained by means of a mark made by a pen and ink on the axle. I observed it while revolving at the rate of twenty times round in thirteen seconds, and could still distinguish the teeth and spaces from each other; that is, I could see that the teeth were not (according to your expression) lengthened out so as to fill up the whole periphery (which was the case of another wheel, which turned ten times as fast.) In thirteen seconds, therefore, $20 \times 80 = 1,600$ teeth, or 3,200 teeth and spaces were still visible in succession, that is, 246 in a second. The teeth of the wheel were not so far visible as to shew their shape distinctly, much less could they have been counted; I could, however, very plainly distinguish the circumference to be divided into teeth and spaces; and suppose the same division might still have been seen, had the motion been a little faster, as far, perhaps, as two turns in a second, equal to 320 sensations. While the wheel was performing its gyration, I applied a pair of compasses near its periphery, and shutting them gradually, I supposed this opening of the points nearly equal to the distance of the centers of the teeth, and found, on stopping the machine, that the measure was pretty just.

just. To obviate an objection which might be made, I repeated the experiment by hiding the wheel with a piece of paper held over it, which paper had only a very narrow slit cut into it, so as just to permit a tooth and a space to appear at once, when the experiment answered as before *."

Essay II. On the Nature and Principles of Public Credit. 8vo.
2s. White.

IN our fifty-seventh Volume, page 107, we gave some account of the First Essay; and, in the conclusion of the article, extracted the author's promise of a Second, in his own words. A little ambiguity in the language induced us to employ them, for we could not easily ascertain his precise meaning; but it is sufficiently elucidated in the present Essay.

The subject of this continuation is the sinking fund, or a fund raised from the surplus of the revenue, for the purpose of accumulating a sum to be employed in the diminution of the national debt. This indeed ought to be its object; if it has been otherwise employed, we suppose sufficient reasons might be assigned for its destination; it will indeed be obvious, that to take sums from this fund, which would otherwise have contributed to swell the public debt, can scarcely be styled a misapplication of them, except in very particular circumstances. It frequently must be favourable; as, for instance, when by interested combinations, the premium demanded for a loan exceeds its value, appreciated by the price of stock, or when the latter is sunk by artful manœuvres to suit the plan of the lender. What our author calls the 'progressional power of the sinking fund,' is the power which any given sum has to redeem a greater or less capital of the public debt, and this must necessarily be in the inverse ratio of the public prosperity. When interest, for instance, is high, stocks are low; consequently public calamities will be favourable to this power, as by their means a greater quantity of stock may be bought with a given sum. This is one of the instances

* The chevalier D'Arcy, in some experiments, made with a view to determine the duration of visible sensations, found that the sensation of a lighted coal lasted eight-thirds, after the lighted coal itself had ceased to make any impression on the eye. Hence it follows (one-third being the sixtieth part of a second) that we cannot entertain so many as eight such sensations, one after another, in a second of time. In Mr. Herschel's experiments, where the objects were less luminous, the number was found to be far greater. But it is highly probable, that the duration of sensations depends in a great measure on the splendour of the objects concerned. The chevalier D'Arcy himself found white objects to be not quite so durable as the lighted coal. He appears, however, not to have made any decisive experiments with this particular view.—*Memoires de l'Academie des Sciences, année 1765, p. 439.*

hinted at in our former article, where arithmetical calculations must be necessarily modified by views of a very different nature; for a prosperous state of the sinking fund will act as a counterpoise to national calamities, and prevent that influence on the price of stock, which they would otherwise produce: and if ever the sinking fund be appropriated in this manner, as is supposed to be the present intention of administration, it will be absolutely necessary to conceal the execution of the design with the most anxious precautions, and to employ the money by slow degrees, and at distant intervals. But to return.

Our author, though he neglects this necessary counterpoise in a general view, yet, when applied to particular circumstances, gives it a proper weight. To render the sinking fund capable of producing its full effect, he thinks the progressional power should be secured. This is, he thinks, best done 'by converting the debt into redeemable stock, the nominal capital whereof shall not exceed the actual value of the annuities, computed according to the market rate of interest for the time being.' But as, in this case, the extra-interest, granted by this conversion, is, in obvious ways, liable to an immediate reduction, unless its security be provided for, it is equally necessary, that the 'honest annuitant,' who only can be injured by this reduction, should be placed beyond the reach of contrivances, which would so much deteriorate his property. The counter securities are the subject of this pamphlet; and the two following sections contain, 1st.

'An investigation, ascertaining the necessary principles of an annuity stock, that shall naturally produce an equal security to the progressional power of the sinking fund, and to the annuity appertaining to the creditor.' 2dly, An enumeration 'of the superior advantages attendant on an annuity stock of the foregoing principles, in preference to any other kind of annuities; and the mutual benefit flowing therefrom, as well to the creditors as to the public; whereby the public credit naturally becomes restored to its pristine state.'

In the first Section of the Postscript, our author endeavours not only to show that Mr. Sinclair's opinion of the sound state of our resources, and the distance of a national bankruptcy, is well-founded; but that, in reality, this fatal event is 'equally producible or preventible' at pleasure. We cannot enter on this subject, as it would exceed our limits; but, after a careful examination, we think the plan equally clear, consistent, and practicable. We would strongly recommend it to the 'powers that be.'

In the second Section Mr. Gale considers some of the positions in Dr. Price's remarks on a plan to raise money by public

public loans, and to redeem public debts. The principal of these positions are, 'that reductions of interest are some of the most dangerous and temporary expedients: that they only postpone calamities, by accumulating them, and rendering them less possible to be avoided.' This subject our author expatiates on at some length; and, after a few observations on other parts, examines the doctor's plan for diminishing the national debt. The nature of these details prevents us from analysing, and their length from transcribing them. We shall only add, that Mr. Gale's arguments are supported by great strength of reasoning, and, what seem to us, accurate calculations.

This Second Essay is more clear, and more applicable to practice, than the former, while at the same time it exhibits equal accuracy of distinction, and is supported by reasoning equally solid. The language is still dry and unornamented; to many it may seem obscure; but these are defects inseparable from the subject, in which ornament would be misapplied, and which is with difficulty comprehended or explained.

Apology for the Life of George Anne Bellamy. 3 Vols. 12mo.
15s. Bell.

THIS title is modest; but it leads one to expect apologies for errors, instead of a free, unconstrained relation of them. Perhaps Mrs. Bellamy has preserved it, in imitation of the title of similar performances, without perceiving its tendency to mislead. Though we must suspect, that a natural partiality for her own actions, a little spice of self-love will gild her faults, and diminish her errors, yet the tale, in many respects, appears to be related with fidelity and candour. Her own mind, unaccustomed to restraint, was eager and impetuous in forming and executing its resolutions: Lively, gay, and inconsiderate, with a spirit which years could not humble, or misfortunes depress, she has been the victim of misdirected talents, and of qualifications which, in better circumstances, might have rendered her a bright ornament of society. In the sun-shine of prosperity she was followed, courted, and admired; her faults assumed the lustre of their kindred virtues, and her errors were consequently sanctioned by popular applause; they were rooted by the approbation of those whose 'praise was fame.' At this time, she could not be expected to think of age,—to reflect on its attendants, obscurity, neglect, and perhaps poverty; so that many of her faults may be styled indiscretions, and these were sometimes produced by the mis-

misconduct of others rather than of herself: even her indiscretions have, in some instances, arisen from the best motives; the most warm and active benevolence.

We would not, however, wish to plead in favour of immorality, though we should distinguish between voluntary and accidental guilt. There are not many works whose tendency is more salutary. These volumes may remind the gay fluttering butterflies of the present day, that the period of reflection and regret will probably arrive, when the remembrance of these fading pleasures will be attended with remorse rather than delight: they may suggest to the unthinking fair one, who envies the gilded luxuries of her who seems to bask in the sunshine of fortune, that it is an 'unsubstantial pageant,' which will dissolve, and leave a permanent distress: that, in the midst of splendor, the mind fears to look at the conduct which its unregulated passions have dictated, and shuns reflection as its bitterest enemy. Mrs. Bellamy has endeavoured to oppose the influence of example, by moral reflections; but these are often trite or misapplied, and their return at the end of every letter, rather tends to disgust than instruct. The consequences of vice are the best incentives to virtue.

The story is in general told with spirit: it is frequently affecting and amusing; but the anecdotes lose much of their zest, because unaccompanied with that lively manner which once distinguished Mrs. Bellamy. The wretched we commonly forsake, and fly to 'eyes unsullied with a tear:' perhaps, on this account, we found the latter volumes less interesting than the former; but whatever was the cause, in her decline, the story hangs with unusual heaviness. The anecdotes, occasionally introduced, reflect the highest honour on the humanity of some of the heroes of the stage. If Mr. Garrick does not possess an honourable and resplendent niche in this group of statues, somewhat must be allowed to the failings of human nature, and somewhat to disadvantageous impression, which his frequent disputes with our author must have necessarily left.

On the whole, these volumes are very entertaining, and we think instructive. To the heart guarded by moral instruction, they can certainly do no injury; and we think the consequences are too obvious to be overlooked by the most careless, the most dissipated reader. The confession, so far as it may be supposed candid, adds a credit to the author; but independent of self-love, the debts of gratitude seem to have been repaid, by extenuating the errors of others.

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The following anecdote of a certain distinguished character, is curious and entertaining.

‘I cannot here help taking notice of an instance, among many, of this worthy man’s fondness for his son, who justly makes so conspicuous a figure in the political annals of the present times. The wall at the bottom of the lawn before Holland-house being to be taken down, and iron pallisades put up in its room, that the passengers on the road might have a better view of that fine antique building, it was necessary to make use of gunpowder to precipitate the work. Mr. Fox had promised master Charles that he should be present when the explosion took place. But finding the workmen had completed the fall of the wall without giving him notice, he ordered it to be rebuilt. And when it was thoroughly cemented, had it blown up again, in order to keep his word with his son. He at the same time recommended it to those about him, never, upon any account, to be guilty of a breach of promise to children, as by doing so they instilled into them an indifference in regard to the observance of their own promises, when they arrived at years of maturity.’

The following trait of Mrs. Bellamy’s sensibility does credit to her heart.

Mr. Colman introduced a young lady, by name Morris, in his play of *The English Merchant*, in which she met with great approbation. She afterwards appeared in *Juliet*. As her youth and attractions were what *Juliet* should be, it would have been absurd to a degree, had I objected to her playing it; notwithstanding, at that period, it was not common to take the capital performers characters from them, except for a person of acknowledged merit.

‘This fair flower, like a lily, reared a-while her head, displayed her beauties to the sun, and diffused around the sweetest odours. But transient as the lily’s was her fate.—Like her lovely emblem surcharged with rain, she soon dropped, and charmed no more. So eager was the grisley monster death to seize such perfection, and so hasty were his strides, that she was unable to appear at her own benefit in the character of *Juliet*. I was therefore solicited by her relations to perform the part, which I did with the greatest readiness; sincerely regretting, at the same time, the untimely decay of such promising merit; which probably would have adorned the stage with another *Farren*.’

We would willingly have extracted some passages relating to Mr. Quin and Mr. Woodward; but we would neither anticipate the reader’s curiosity, or run the slightest risk of injuring the unfortunate author.

History of the Public Revenue. (Concluded, from p. 210.)

IN the Second Part of this work, Mr. Sinclair proceeds to treat of the various modes of providing for the extraordinary expences of the nation.

‘ The charges incurred by a nation in times of peace, seldom exceed its ordinary income, or what it may be made to produce. It requires no great revenue to maintain the magistrates entrusted with the general government of the country; to support such as are employed in expounding the laws, and in distributing justice; and to defray the expences of such public works as are essentially necessary for the benefit of the community. Indeed, if nations were always at peace, supplying a revenue for public purposes, could never prove burdensome to society.

‘ But the necessity there is, from the turbulent disposition of the human species, and the ambition of those individuals who govern the affairs of states, to be perpetually providing for the expences of war, is uniformly attended with the heaviest charges. Maxims of frugality, however proper and desirable at other times, are found incompatible with a state of hostility. When the fate of a nation is at stake, or even when any of its important interests are endangered, exertions must be made, without regarding the expences they may occasion. The troops and armaments of the foe must be opposed, whatever cost such opposition may require; and every citizen must sacrifice a part of his fortune, either to increase the property and maintain the interests of the community to which he belongs, or to preserve the wealth which it has already acquired from the plunder of its enemies.’

By the manner in which our author has expressed himself in the conclusion of the above passage, the sense, we have reason to think, is very different from what he intended to convey. If we be right in the meaning which we suppose him to have had in view, the following arrangement of the words would have precluded all imprecision: ‘ or to preserve, from the plunder of its enemies, the wealth which it has already acquired.’

Our author considers, under four distinct heads, the different methods which have been proposed for raising those extraordinary supplies. The first is, to accumulate a treasure in time of peace. The second, to levy the necessary supplies within the year, by means of extraordinary additional taxes. The third, to exact compulsive loans from the wealthiest individuals in the community. The fourth, to borrow money from such as are willing to advance it upon the security of public faith. These several modes he afterwards examines in their order.

The first of the abovementioned methods of supply has been practised during the infancy of many states, and amongst these, in that of England, under the princes subsequent to the Conquest. But, our author observes, it is attended with one essential disadvantage.

‘If the precious metals at all contribute to the happiness of political society (which cannot be doubted, at least by those who consider with how much greater facility commerce is carried on in consequence of so useful a medium), every plan that tends to diminish their abundance, must be prejudicial. A system of that nature may be less hurtful, before industry and commerce flourish; and at such a period may perhaps be necessary, from the difficulty with which any considerable sum of money is collected in critical emergencies. But, in general, it would be better to employ the surplus of the national revenue in works of public advantage, or even in the construction of useless pyramids, as was done by the sovereigns of Egypt, than in accumulating a hoard to lie dormant, without interest and without circulation.

‘A well-known and eminent author has notwithstanding vehemently contended for continuing the practice of the ancients; and in particular grounds himself upon this idea, “That the opening of such a treasure necessarily produces an uncommon affluence of gold and silver, serves as a temporary encouragement to industry, and atones, in some degree, for the inevitable calamities of war.” Unfortunately for this author’s hypothesis, the same circumstance, namely the abundance of gold and silver, which alleviates the calamities of war, augments also the blessings of peace; and those blessings are necessarily diminished where treasures are accumulated: indeed, a public hoard can hardly be collected, without reducing a nation, in point of commerce and circulation, to much the same situation in times of tranquillity, as in the midst of war. Besides, it is proper to remark, that the Romans always endeavoured, in the first place, to procure money by loans, and never applied to their treasure, but when their credit was exhausted.’

Mr. Sinclair confirms his opinion with regard to the bad effects of accumulating treasures, by observing that this mode of recourse is liable to other insurmountable objections; such as the danger which may thence result of usurpation in monarchical governments; of despotism in free states; and, under every form of government, of being improvidentially expended. He remarks that in England, the usurpations of the three monarchs who reigned after William the Conqueror, were greatly owing to their having secured the treasures of their predecessors. That if no public treasure had existed in the Roman common-wealth, Caesar could hardly have succeeded in his attempt upon the liberties of his country. And that

that the immense treasures which the republic of Athens had been accumulating for the space of fifty years, was dissipated in rash and imprudent enterprizes, to the ruin of the state.

Respecting the method of raising the supplies within the year, our author observes that this was the principle upon which aids were originally granted by parliament to the kings of England : and, at the Revolution, it was imagined that a general excise, in addition to the usual revenue, would have furnished money sufficient to defray the expences of the war. But he justly remarks, that various circumstances unfortunately contributed to render such a plan at that time impracticable.

‘ The instant of a revolution is an improper period for increasing, in any great degree, the burdens of a nation. Many would have rejoiced at such an opportunity of spreading disaffection to the new government. Taxes were at that time peculiarly unpopular in England ; insomuch that it was thought necessary, in order to ingratiate the new sovereign with his people, to diminish instead of increasing the revenue, and to repeal the productive duty of hearth-money, by one of the first acts to which William III. gave the royal assent after his accession.’

This mode of raising supplies has nevertheless been recommended by several writers, since the æra of the Revolution ; viz. by sir Matthew Decker, Postlethwayt, Mr. Pulteney, and Mr. Arthur Young ; who have represented, in flattering colours the advantages, of which, in their opinion, it would be productive. To carry such a plan into effect, our author observes that two things are requisite ; first, power and resources in a state ; and secondly, inclination in the public. We join with Mr. Sinclair in thinking, that the ability of a nation to make a great addition to its revenue, amidst all the horrors and calamities of war, especially in modern times, when hostilities are protracted to such a length, and carried on in so extensive a manner, is at best problematical. For, whether the plan proposed by Mr. Young, of levying the tax upon income, or that of Mr. Pulteney, of laying it upon capital, should be adopted, in either case the expedient would be accompanied with great difficulty. According to the former, it is supposed, that thirty-seven millions of the national income arises from property liable, in time of war, to great hazard, and much diminution in point of value, and consequently unable to bear any heavy additional burden. On the other hand, by Mr. Pulteney’s plan, though sufficient property existed in Great Britain, yet the difficulty of collecting it from the distant parts of the kingdom, so as to answer the

the exigences of government; must be extremely great. On this subject our author makes the following just observations.

‘ The plan of raising its supplies within the year, however, is a circumstance which every nation ought to have in view, as it may possibly prove absolutely necessary for its preservation and existence; and perhaps it might be rendered less oppressive, and more practicable, if, instead of specie, a part of the new additional supplies were exacted in kind; and if the furnishing of a certain number of recruits; the providing of a certain number of seamen, or a certain quantity of naval stores, &c. &c. were considered as a sufficient equivalent for the new taxes, at a certain reasonable conversion. For there may be property in a country amply sufficient to carry such a plan into effect, and yet, where money is demanded, it may be rendered impracticable, from the want of a sufficient quantity of circulating specie. Such a plan might perhaps be attempted, if the real strength and resources of the kingdom were fully known; and if it were ascertained, what each district could afford for the public service, on any important emergency, not only in money, but in other articles useful to the state.’

The third mode which has been mentioned of levying supplies, namely, that by compulsive loans, is of very ancient date in this country. From being originally a tax on foreign merchants, it was afterwards extended to the natives of the kingdom; from whom it was often exacted in a manner even inconsistent with common decency; until at last compulsive loans were formally abolished by the petition of right. The author's observations respecting this arbitrary method of taxation deserve to be laid before our readers.

‘ But, says he, it is a curious subject of political speculation, whether such a plan might not be improved, so as to answer many beneficial public purposes; and whether such a system ought not to be kept in view, if another war should unfortunately soon break out. If every wealthy person in the kingdom were obliged, when called upon by the legislature, to furnish a certain sum of money, at a reasonable interest, upon the faith and security of parliament, loans would be raised upon moderate terms, and probably without much murmur or oppression. By such means, the enormous profits which are exacted by usurious money-lenders, who combine together, and take every unfair advantage of the public necessities, would be prevented; nor would the nation, to gratify their rapacity, be loaded with burdens almost unsupportable.’

It cannot be denied, that the necessities of the state might justify the legislature in the recourse to such a mode of exaction, particularly if the money-lenders demanded exorbitant interest; but to prevent the expedient from becoming oppressive,

pressive, care would be required to adapt it as much as possible to the convenience of individuals.

The last method of raising supplies is by voluntary loans, which are obtained on various conditions ; such as on valuable pledges ; on personal security ; by mortgaging the public domains ; by mortgaging taxes ; by temporary annuities ; by annuities on lives ; by contingent annuities ; and by perpetual annuities ; to which may be added, exchequer bills and debentures of every kind, the sale of offices, and the alienation of the public domains.

Our author, after enumerating the various methods of providing for the extraordinary expences of a nation, takes a general view of the circumstances which gave birth to the heavy load of public debts, and of the advantages and disadvantages which they have produced. He accounts, in an obvious and satisfactory manner, for the difference of the national burdens arising from military operations, in ancient and modern times.

‘ Formerly, says he, one or other of the parties at war, boldly entered into the territories of his opponent ; and marching directly to the capital, or to any spot where the enemy had assembled, the fate of a wealthy kingdom, or powerful republic, was often decided by a single engagement. But in modern times, the whole fury of the war is spent in besieging towns on the frontier, or in doubtful naval operations, or in the attack and defence of some remote colony, or distant appendage ; the consequence of which is, that the war is protracted to a great length, and becomes progressively more expensive. Thus neither of the parties are able to procure any great superiority, or decided advantage ; and hostilities are carried on, until the resources of one, or both of them, are exhausted ; and it is found impossible to raise money, either by augmenting the ordinary revenue, or by borrowing on the public faith.

‘ In ancient times, wars were not only shorter in their duration, but means were also taken, and principles were adopted, which rendered great pecuniary supplies less necessary than at present. Formerly, the whole was a scene of plunder and devastation. The persons and the property of the enemy were at the entire disposal of the conqueror ; and the general estimated the profits of the campaign, not only by the quantity of money, and other personal effects he had seized, but also by the number of his prisoners, who were sold for slaves, and were accounted a very valuable commodity. The greater part of the plunder taken in the campaign, was accounted for to the public ; and many a Roman general, after defraying the charges of the war from the booty he had acquired, was also able to make considerable additions to the public treasury, amidst the triumphal shouts of his countrymen.

'The arms now made use of, are also much more expensive than those of antiquity. The shield, the spear, the lance, the javelin, and the bow and arrow of the ancients, cannot be compared, in regard to price, with the modern musquet; particularly when the reiterated expence of powder and ball is taken into consideration. And as to military engines, there can be no comparison in point of cost, between a modern train of artillery, and a set of battering-rams and catapultæ.

'But the principal source of national expences in these times, when compared to those of antiquity, arises from naval charges. It is at sea where all the modern nations have wasted their strength. It is on that element that those debts have in a great measure been contracted, under the pressure of which they now groan. Had the rage of equipping numerous fleets, and building ships of great magnitude and dimensions, never existed, hardly any state in Europe would have been at this time in debt. To that fatal ambition, their present distressed and mortgaged situation ought chiefly to be attributed.'

Various are the opinions which have been entertained by different political writers, with regard to the effects of the funding system. The celebrated Montesquieu declared, that he knew of no advantages of which public debts were productive; but Mr. Sinclair observes, that this excellent writer seems to have formed too hasty a conclusion. It is hardly possible, says he, for any person who attentively considers the subject, to deny the beneficial consequences resulting from public credit, in the prosecution of a just and necessary war. And in fact, he adds, the great success which has uniformly attended the arms of Great Britain, when its affairs have been wisely and prudently conducted, has been entirely owing to the ease with which any sum, however great, could be procured for the public service. The latter of these observations every reader must acknowledge to be just; and we therefore have some reason to doubt whether there really exists any difference of opinion between our author and Montesquieu on this head. We are inclined to think that the baron, in the above mentioned passage, had in his eye only the *political* consequences of the funding system, and not its immediate influence on the conduct and success of the military affairs of a nation.

It is certain that the funding system, amidst its numerous inconveniencies, is productive likewise of public advantage in several particulars; of which we meet with the following account in the work before us.

'If supplies were raised within the year, and the expences of war were considerable, every individual would be obliged, in consequence of the additional weight of his contributions, greatly to curtail his expences; and the employment of the
poor,

poor, and the consumption of the rich, would be considerably diminished. Whereas, when taxes are nearly equal, in times of peace and war (which can only be the case where the system of funding is adopted), the value of every species of property, the mass of national industry, and the circulation of national wealth, are maintained on as regular, steady, and uniform a footing, as the uncertainty and instability of human affairs will admit. Indeed, before public credit is carried to too great a height, a war maintained by national loans and taxes, may be accounted even an advantage to the state. It is of service to the poor, because the price of their labour increases with the greater demand for labourers; it is of use to the rich, for the greater occasion there is for money, the greater is the profit of those who have money to lay out: and foreign wars, though unavoidably attended with many private calamities; yet generally put an end to public discord, and free the country of a number of turbulent and vicious characters, who are a pest to society.

‘ Among the advantages of the funding system, there is none which its friends have so highly extolled, and its enemies have so loudly reprobated, as its tendency to attract money from foreign countries, and the consequence with which that circumstance is attended. It may, perhaps, be of service to a state at war, to be able to draw some resources from other nations; and the want of such aid (as Pinto observes) might have checked and enfeebled all our military operations. Perhaps, also, the Bank of England, and the East India company, the establishment of which has added so much to the wealth and commerce of this country, could not have been erected, or carried on with such effect, from the low state of the trade and resources of England at that time, if it had not been for the assistance they originally received from foreigners: and perhaps, so great is the amount of our public debts at present, that the quantity far exceeds our consumption or demand at home; and our funds could hardly be kept up at any tolerable price, without foreign purchasers. At the same time, whether foreign property in our funds ought to be accounted of public detriment or advantage, is perhaps the most difficult question of any connected with the funding system.

‘ I am apprised of what a very intelligent author has said, “ That the trading subjects of this kingdom, from the farmer to the merchant, make upon an average upwards of ten per cent. per annum, of the money borrowed from foreigners, by our government, at little more than four; and thence, that a profit arises of nearly six per cent. to enable the people to bear the burden of an increase of taxes, and to give them a fresh contributive faculty of subscribing to new loans.” But it must be acknowledged, that if the money borrowed is immediately wasted in foreign expeditions, and never comes into the circulation of the country, the nation that borrows, pays interest to foreigners for a sum of money, without reaping from it any

solid advantage. The only benefit it can possibly produce is, that it renders it unnecessary to raise the money at home, by which the commerce and circulation of the country would probably be injured.

‘At the same time it is proper to observe, that when foreigners are admitted into the public funds of a country, they become naturally interested in promoting its happiness and prosperity. “Where their treasure is, there will their hearts be also.” And not only many wealthy individuals who are born in other countries, are gradually led to consider the state in which their property is settled, as their home, and thence are induced to come and reside in it; but if any great revolution, or a long series of destructive hostilities were to take place on the continent (from which we might be happily exempted in consequence of our insular situation), the greater part of our foreign creditors might find it equally necessary and desirable, to shelter themselves in England from the storm, and this country would receive a valuable addition to its population and wealth.’

Mr. Sinclair farther observes, that the public debts of a nation not only attract riches from abroad, with a sort of magnetic influence, but also retain at home money, which would otherwise be exported; and which, if sent to other countries, might be attended with pernicious consequences to the state whose wealth is carried out of it. He illustrates this doctrine by the following example: that if France maintained its wars by borrowing money, and England raised all its supplies within the year, the necessary consequence would be, that all the loose and unemployed money of England, instead of remaining here, exposed to the chance of being taken up by a government, which gave no interest in return for the use of it, would naturally be transmitted to France, where it could be placed out to advantage. Admitting our author's supposition in the terms which have been stated, the inference may perhaps be well founded; but certainly such conduct could not be more disgraceful to British patriotism than the supposed arbitrary measures of government would be both to policy and justice. Did such oppression really exist in this country, as Mr. Sinclair has supposed for the sake of argument, the incident would be less surprising, that rich individuals should advance money to a foreign crown, than that they did not emigrate with it, and abandon a nation where the enjoyment of their property was so precarious. Other advantages attending the funding system, and specified by our author, are, that it brings money into circulation, attaches people to government, and encourages commerce and industry.

Mr. Sinclair next treats of the inconveniences of the funding system; shewing the disadvantages attending this mode of

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procuring money in cases of emergency; the pernicious consequences resulting from public debts whilst they remain unpaid; and how far they have a destructive tendency to increase and accumulate. The first consideration is, that the possession of unbounded credit is too apt to make a nation inclined to engage in rash and dangerous enterprizes. But the most essential objection is the accumulation of taxes, which, by increasing the price of the necessaries of life, renders it more difficult for the manufacturers of a mortgaged state, to carry on a successful competition with the subjects of other powers. Without giving any detail of the various objections to the funding system, which have been made by different writers, and are recited by the present author, we shall lay before our readers the plan which he proposes for establishing the funding system on the most beneficial principles for a nation.

‘ The first principle that the public ought to establish, is never to become bound to pay an iota more than the specific principal sum which it originally borrowed. Adding an artificial to a real capital, or pledging the public to pay a hundred pounds, when perhaps only sixty were received, is the most pernicious of all financial operations; and any minister that proposed such a plan in parliament, ought to be made liable to impeachment. It will probably be alleged, that it may be found impossible to borrow money, without giving the creditor that usurious advantage. That objection, however, ought not to be regarded. For when the money-lender knows that every other plan is contrary to an established law, which cannot be safely infringed, his ideas will be regulated accordingly, and the difference will be made up by premiums, or, in the language of the Alley, by an additional *bonus* or *douceur*, on principles less pernicious to the public. Indeed, if money cannot be borrowed in such a manner, it is a sign, either that the minister is deservedly unpopular, or that the war is unnecessary, and consequently ought not to be persevered in.

‘ This rule, if invariably adhered to, will for ever prevent the accumulation of a great artificial capital, which terrifies the imaginations of mankind, depresses the spirit of the people, diminishes their credit, and consequently impairs their strength.

‘ It ought also to be an unalterable law of the land, that after the creditor has received the interest originally agreed upon, for the space of five, or at the utmost seven years, it shall be in the power of the public to pay him off, if money can be borrowed for that purpose at a lower interest. This principle, if rigorously attended to, will gradually occasion a great diminution in the interest of our debts. England, at this time, pays only three per cent. for money that was originally borrowed at eight; and where artificial capitals do not obstruct such a measure, a nation can always borrow, in time of peace,
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at a cheaper rate, than in time of war, and thus the weight of its debts may be perpetually diminished.

‘ A state determined to carry on its wars, by the funding system, ought never to borrow money upon any other principle, than that of perpetual annuities. All long and short annuities, and annuities for lives, whether tontines or otherwise, ought to be avoided. They breed confusion in the public accounts; they occasion a great additional expence for management; and the money that is borrowed, is procured upon terms infinitely more disadvantageous to the public. Whether, in time of peace, some money might not be raised, in a favourable manner, upon life annuities, is questionable; but, there can be no doubt that, in time of war, it is impossible for the public to make any tolerable bargain with money-lenders, founded on any uncertain contingency.

‘ Besides, whatever may be said in regard to calculations in the Alley, that an annuity for a hundred years, is equal to a perpetuity; yet, as Dr. Smith well observes, those who buy into the public stocks, in order to make family settlements, or to provide for remote futurity (and they are the principal buyers and holders of stock), and corporations of every kind, are not fond of buying into a fund, the value of which is perpetually diminishing. And though the intrinsic worth of an annuity for a long term of years, is nearly the same with that of a perpetual annuity, yet it is not so valuable in the market, is never so much in request, and does not find the same number of purchasers.

‘ Indeed, if a nation is determined to persevere in the funding system, the wisest and most politic step it can possibly take, is to adopt that mode of procuring money, which is the most likely to be the cheapest and most advantageous in the course of ages. It may flatter itself, that when it borrows upon short or long annuities, it will reap considerable advantages, when such annuities are extinguished. But it ought at the same time to remember, that before the annuities can cease, more money, in all probability, must be raised; and if the same unprofitable system is adhered to, the nation will always be borrowing money upon disadvantageous terms.

‘ The establishment of an unalienable sinking fund, for the redemption of public debts, is another principle, which, in a state, where it is proposed to persevere in the funding system, cannot possibly be dispensed with; and such a fund ought to arise, not from any little surplus of revenue, or the increasing produce of particular branches, but should be founded on some great, solid, and productive tax, proportioned as much as possible to the wealth of the nation, and the debts it has incurred. For that purpose, no plan would be so effectual, as a permanent regulation, by which every individual, having property in England, whether natives or foreigners, was under the necessity of leaving to the public, at least one half of his clear annual income

income in this country, at the time of his death. No testament ought to be valid, without such a bequest; and if any person died intestate, a year's income should be exacted. A revenue of this kind, would always keep the debts of a nation within moderate bounds, and could hardly be evaded.

'The care of such an unalienable sinking fund, should be entrusted to individuals peculiarly responsible for its success. A special commission should be appointed for that purpose alone. A different set of individuals should be pitched upon to pay off public debts, from those by whom they are contracted; and the progress made in discharging the incumbrances of a nation, ought never to be so involved with other operations of finance, as to become imperceptible to the eye of the public.'

In addition to these articles, our author proposes, that every means should be adopted for encouraging individuals, when they had no near relations, to leave their property to the public; and that peculiar checks and securities ought to be contrived to prevent the embezzlement of the money which is borrowed upon the national credit.

In the remaining chapters, the author recites the rise and progress of our present national debts, in the course of which narrative he gives a general view of them at the different periods of their accumulation; concluding with an account of the steps hitherto taken to diminish the capital, and reduce the interest; and of the several plans which have been suggested for that purpose. Through the whole of the History, Mr. Sinclair discovers faithful attention to facts, which he has likewise industriously collected. He examines the opinions of different writers with impartiality; and makes such judicious reflections, as must not only render the present volume acceptable to political readers, but induce them to wish that he may continue a work, which, so far as he has already proceeded, he has, in our opinion, executed with ability.

Remarks upon the History of the Landed and Commercial Policy of England, from the Invasion of the Romans to the Accession of James the First. In two Volumes. Small 8vo. 6s. sewed.
Brooke.

TO trace the progress of society from a state of rudeness to that of refinement, is one of the most entertaining speculations on the subject of politics. In such an enquiry we not only behold the genuine characters of men when destitute of civilization, but have an opportunity to observe the gradual developement of the human mind in the exertion of its most valuable faculties. As the wealth and populousness of a nation are chiefly derived from husbandry, manufactures, and commerce,

commerce, nothing can prove more useful towards displaying the importance of these arts, than exhibiting a view of the public prosperity, which must always result from their improvement. In the period which is the object of the Remarks now before us, the author enjoys an ample prospect for a variety of political observation. He discovers the rudiments of the useful arts whilst just emerging into existence in this country; and he traces them, through many vicissitudes of fortune, to an epoch when they attained a signal degree of cultivation.

The work begins with remarks upon the landed and commercial policy of the ancient Britons; in treating of which he adopts the distinction usual with philosophical writers, of considering mankind in three different lights, as savages, shepherds, and husbandmen.

Under the first of these they include such as subsist by fishing, the acquisitions of the chase, or the natural productions of the ground. The number of inhabitants in this state must, in general, be few: and they can unite together only in small parties, as the means of subsistence are oftentimes scanty and precarious. Every thing being common, and the property of the first occupier, no other law can be expected to take place than what depends in a great measure on personal strength. When men have so far advanced towards civilization as to obtain a distinct property in cattle, they have commonly claimed an exclusive right to particular districts, the boundaries of which have been settled by mutual agreement or long possession. In this state bodies of men may unite, in proportion to the richness of the soil, and the extent of the country they possess. As the property of every individual is easily ascertained, few regulations are necessary; and these are generally founded on custom, which holds the place of written laws. When agriculture is introduced, property becomes so various and complicated, that a code of laws is necessary to preserve it as well as to encourage industry. Cultivated lands yielding a greater produce than in a state of nature, a larger body of people may subsist together, and form an union for their security against foreign and domestic enemies. And as husbandry requires the aid of different arts to supply its wants, artificers and manufacturers are gradually formed, and the several occupations of life are allotted to particular persons, which in the other states are usually exercised by all the members. Ancient writers have therefore generally made agriculture and legislation coeval and attendant on each other.

According to the earliest accounts, the original inhabitants of Britain, though extremely uncultivated, were numerous and martial. But it is not improbable, as our author observes, that Cæsar magnified the number of Britons, either to

give importance to his invasion of so distant a country, or through the want of proper information; and the Remarker is justly of opinion, that the produce of the British lands, in their native and uncultivated state, as a great part of them undoubtedly was in the time of Cæsar, could not be so considerable as to maintain a numerous body of the people. The number of inhabitants in every country destitute of commerce, he observes, is always proportioned to the quantity of food which the soil or the neighbouring seas or rivers afford; and the northern Britons are said to have abstained from eating fish. Our author has not, in this part of the work, taken into account the provisions afforded by the chace, which is so common an exercise in every uncultivated country; but we join with him in thinking, for the reasons he has mentioned, and for others which might be assigned, that the inhabitants of Britain, before the invasion of the Romans, were in reality not so numerous as they have been represented by ancient writers; whose testimony, however, we are ready to admit, with respect to what is remarked by our author in the subsequent quotation.

‘We are sometimes apt to consider the descriptions which the Greek and Roman writers have left us of ancient Gaul, Germany, and Britain, as fabulous, and owing to their ignorance of these regions. A part of their accounts was undoubtedly received from merchants or soldiers, who, presuming on the ignorance or credulity of their hearers, took the liberty to magnify what they had seen or learnt from report. But the temperature of the air is so widely different in cultivated and uncultivated countries, though lying under the same latitudes, that there is no reason to distrust the veracity of these writers in the relations they have given us of the northern parts of Europe. Some countries, which were then looked upon to be almost uninhabitable through the extremity of cold, afford many conveniences of life, and produce grain and fruits which were then thought to be incompatible with the climate. And the cultivated tracts of a country will have a beneficial influence upon others that lie at a considerable distance. Every part of England and France feels the advantages of the improved agriculture of their northern neighbours, and enjoys a warmth and temperature of air unknown in former ages.’

The second chapter contains remarks upon the landed and commercial policy of the Britons under the Roman government. It is beyond a doubt, that the conquest of this country by the Romans contributed greatly to its civilization. Whether it was that the Romans regarded the offices of husbandry as servile, or that this employment was best calculated to keep the people in subjection, it seems to be certain, as
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our author observes, that agriculture was enforced in the different provinces of the empire. The advancement of this art in Britain, under the government of the Romans, appears to be faithfully described by the author, in the following extract.

‘ The Roman colonists, who settled in Britain, would undoubtedly apply themselves to the cultivation of the lands in their neighbourhood, and endeavour to teach the natives by example their own mode of husbandry, as far it was applicable to the soil and climate. But the number of colonists was too small to have an extensive influence. Equal benefits arose from the legions, which were quartered in different parts of the island. As soon as the natives were reduced to submission, the soldiers would either till, or oblige them to assist in tilling, the adjacent lands, in order to supply themselves with better provisions than the coarse food of the inhabitants. In process of time, villages were built near these military stations; and such of the natives, as chose to imitate the manners of the Romans, put themselves under their protection, and cultivated their lands in greater security from the inroads of their countrymen than they could in many other places. And, for the better protection of the people, the troops were quartered in such parts as were best adapted for maintaining the internal peace and tranquillity of the provinces. As many Britons had retired into Wales and the northern parts of the island, and annoyed both the Romans and their countrymen by their incursions, the military forces were so disposed as to guard against them in the most effectual manner. The legions stationed at Gloucester, Chester, and Carlisle, and the walls and ramparts thrown up by Adrian and Severus, are instances of the care they took to preserve domestic tranquillity.’

In the third chapter, the author delineates the landed and commercial policy of England, under the Anglo-Saxon government. This period introduced a great revolution in the landed property and manners of the Britons. It seems to have rather encouraged than diminished an attention to agriculture, though those who chiefly cultivated this useful art were loaded with many oppressive duties and exactions.

‘ Landed property, says our author, being considered by the Saxons as of no other use than as the means of supplying them with provisions, and the common necessaries of life, without being obliged to purchase them of others, it was disposed of in such a manner as to answer these ends by dividing it into small parcels, and exacting a sum of money, or a portion of the product, from some tenants, and labour, or particular services, from others. The demesnes of the lords and gentry were commonly sufficient to furnish them with corn and cattle for the maintenance of their families; and other parts of their estates were disposed of on such terms as to supply them with carriages
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and labourers. To some tenants a small portion of land was granted, in consideration of working particular days for their landlord; others were bound to carry out the manure to his demesne-lands; to reap, mow, or carry his corn or hay; to shoe his horses, and find the iron; to fence a few yards of his park, or to fetch timber from the woods; to supply him with a quantity of honey or malt; to carry his provisions when he travelled, or at particular times to treat his steward or bailiff. In short, every tenant, according to his circumstances, was obliged to lend assistance to his landlord. The ceorles assisted him with their plows and carriages, and the cottagers and serfs with their labour. Whenever these sorts of tenants were obliged to attend, it was commonly fixed, how many hours they should work, and how much they should pay for the neglect; what quantity of meat or drink should be allowed, and at what times they should work without any gratuity. Sometimes particular days were appointed for their attendance, and at other times they were obliged to attend on the summons of the bailiff.

In the fourth chapter the author prosecutes the subject, from the Norman conquest to the succession of Henry the Third. From the extraordinary passion for the chace, which so much actuated the princes of the Norman line, the agriculture of England appears to have derived no advantage, in consequence of this revolution; and her commerce, which had been slowly advancing under the Saxon government, was yet impeded by great encumbrances.

‘In every country, says our author, where honour and respect are annexed only to the profession of arms, trade will be looked upon as disgraceful to the gentry, and consigned to Jews, usurers, and the lowest of the people. And, if commerce had been a more creditable employment, it could not flourish under the arbitrary exactions of the monarchs of those times, who assumed a sovereign jurisdiction over all its branches, and frequently seized the merchandise of the subjects or aliens without distinction. The duties or customs levied on goods imported or exported were, for some time after the Conquest, in a great measure undetermined, and collected by officers, who sometimes plundered, instead of protecting the merchants. Through interest or bribes, a licence to trade might be obtained from the crown by particular persons; and if a few were enriched by the grant, the industry of others was proportionably discouraged. So far was commerce thought to be at the disposal of the king, or under the controul of his officers, that it was dangerous to intermeddle in any of its branches without having obtained leave, by a fine or a present. Every privilege relative to trade was exposed to sale, and might be obtained for a valuable consideration. And traffic, even in the most necessary articles, was under great restrictions. The people were compelled

pelled to pay a fine for leave to export corn, leather, cheese, or any other commodity; to remove corn from one county to another; to sell dyed cloth, or to salt fish in a particular manner. The king's officers were seldom to be approached by the subjects without a present in their hands, though this was sometimes extremely trifling. When nothing of greater value could be extorted, they stooped to receive a hawk, hound, or a few fowls, for granting what justice and public utility required.

The next chapter presents us with remarks on the period, from the accession of Henry the Third, to the reign of Henry the Seventh. Both the Charter of Liberty, and that of the Forest, were favourable to the prosperity of the nation, and served to encourage improvements in agriculture, as well as to extend the bounds of commerce. The rigour of villainage, so pernicious to liberal industry, received some abatement; and men began to exert themselves with greater spirit in the acquisition of property, which they could now more securely enjoy, under the protection of laws better calculated than they had been of late for the preservation of public freedom. But it was long before the prejudices of a martial people could be perfectly reconciled to the peaceable occupations of commerce.

In the period which is the subject of the sixth and last chapter, namely, from the accession of Henry the Seventh to the end of the reign of queen Elizabeth, the prosperity of the nation, both in agriculture and commerce, advanced with quicker steps than had been known in any former epoch of the English history.

The enlarged state of commerce, says the author, gave an influence to the mercantile state of the nation. Enabled, by the profits of their traffic abroad, to assist the crown with money in the times of public exigence, they met with that encouragement from the sovereign, and respect from the parliament, which will always be attendant on wealth. And by the same means they obtained an influence in the legislature; and though they were not always guided by public interest, yet they assisted in suggesting and applying the properest measures for maintaining and enlarging the commerce of the nation. The charters of the boroughs and corporate towns, and monopolies in some branches of trade, granted by the crown, impeded for a time the progress of commerce, both at home and abroad; but the influence of the corporations was so great, and exclusive charters to trading companies were thought so useful or necessary, that they met with little opposition from the parliament. When many patents and monopolies were suppressed by Elizabeth, the chartered powers of corporations and trading companies, though at that time almost equally oppressive, passed unnoticed; or, if abuses were complained of, they

they were never redressed. Trade, nevertheless, under all these restrictions, kept gradually increasing, and making an addition to the wealth and number of the people. So many new connections were formed by our merchants in foreign countries, that an interruption of trade in one place was regained by its progress in another. While Spain was neglecting its manufactures and agriculture, and relying for its chief support on the produce of its American mines, England was laying the foundation of a more durable power, in its commerce, navy, and industry of its people.

And the landowners felt the influence of an extended commerce, and of the improved circumstances of the inferior rank of subjects. These were enabled now by the profits of their labour to purchase the products of the lands and the conveniences of life at higher rates, and to live in a more comfortable manner, than in preceding ages. The nobility and gentry, having now no longer occasion for the service of their tenants and vassals, augmented their rents, and enforced an industry to which they had not been accustomed. And the high price of grain, by permitting its export, enabled them to discharge this advance of their rents. Instead of the villains and cottagers, a body of yeomen began to be formed, whose circumstances permitted them to occupy larger farms, to cultivate them in a better manner, and to make a more ample provision for the support of their families. A bare subsistence had been the lot of almost all the ancient occupiers. Their farms were too small to afford more, and their circumstances were too mean for undertaking the management of a larger quantity of land, that might have yielded a more comfortable maintenance.

The improving state of our trade, manufactures, and husbandry, imperceptibly emancipated the descendents of the ancient villains or serfs, who, although free as to their persons, were still considered in some places as annexed to the manor. There were now so many ways of obtaining their liberty, by engaging in the navy, manufactories, and other occupations, that they could not be held any longer in confinement. The boroughs, though at that time the seats of monopolies and oppression, or, as lord Bacon styles them, fraternities in evil, had long received the fugitives from the lands and tyranny of the barons, and by a year's residence secured their liberty. And the free and improved state of the lower classes of the people led them to industry; and this introduced regularity and order. The nation seemed to be roused from its former inactivity, and ready to engage in any undertaking that promised an improvement in its state. And the commons, who had formerly been depressed by the aristocracy, were now enabled by their wealth to acquire so much influence in the legislature, as to controul the exorbitant power and prerogative of the crown, which, if unrestrained, might have been fatal to liberty and the public welfare.

The remarks in these volumes may be considered as a general history of the agriculture and commerce of England, to the beginning of the seventeenth century. The subject, separately viewed, affords no brilliant incidents which can prove interesting to curiosity; but it places in a clear light the necessary connexion between those useful arts and that state of public freedom, in which alone they ever can flourish in any extraordinary degree. Most of the observations contained in this production are to be found in Dr. Henry's History of Great Britain, and other works; but they have the advantage of being collected by the author of the Remarks in an uninterrupted detail.

An Essay on the Polity of England. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Cadell.

Numerous are the encomiums and remarks, which have been made on the British constitution, both by foreign and domestic writers; and amidst all its defects, this celebrated system of polity, hardly known even in idea to the ancients, remains the admiration of modern times. Some public events and popular doctrines having of late years called the attention of political enquirers to the principles of our government, the author of the present Essay appears to have engaged in the same disquisition, with the laudable view of ascertaining the grievances complained of, and pointing out the most effectual remedies. It affords us pleasure to find, at setting out, that he explodes the odious distinction of the king's friends, and the friends of the people; and professes to write as a friend to the constitution, or, in other words, a friend both to the king and the people. This is the only rational and unprejudiced manner of treating the subject; and they who are governed by any other principle of enquiry, let them affect or really be actuated by the greatest zeal, adhere not to the interests of their country.

The author begins with taking a view of the executive power; in considering which he endeavours to evince, that the English government, though apparently monarchical, is, in reality, rather a republic. But by this assertion, we understand him to mean nothing more than that the power of the house of commons, particularly in granting the supplies, amounts to a virtual ascendancy in this branch of the legislature.

‘In a word, says he, in England, the king is called sovereign; yet, in truth, the real, supreme, irresistible, absolute, uncontrollable authority, in which the *jura summi imperii*, or the rights of sovereignty, reside, is vested, not in the monarch only,

only, but in the king, lords, and commons united; in other words, in the legislature. The king is, in fact, little more than the great administrator of the government, or executive power: it may, therefore, perhaps justly be questioned, whether the appellation of sovereign hath, in reality, produced that respect which was intended; or, by attributing to him the sole power of government, it hath not rather lessened the esteem for his authority; and by directing the people of late years, in their search for a redress of grievances, to a wrong object, it hath not contributed to the increase of our misfortunes, rather than afforded the means of redress.

The author next takes a view of the origin of the English constitution, under the feudal system of government; observing that, as a rule of civil polity, this system was extremely defective; and that in consequence of such deficiency, the judicial power was separated from the executive, and the constitution, progressively, was improved in several other particulars. He then traces the rise and progress of that power which has been acquired by the house of commons; and shews the danger which might result from its encroachment on the peculiar rights of the monarchical part of the constitution.

In the Second Book, the author treats of the caution which seems to be necessary in reducing either the prerogative, or the influence of the crown; which, he thinks, are very far from being in any degree formidable at present; and in this opinion he has been enabled to support his argument both by facts and authorities.

In the Third Book, he considers the nature of the grievances complained of; with the view to discover the principle from which they originate, and the remedies most likely to correct them. He states those complaints under the general heads of being unsuccessful abroad, and unhappy and prodigal at home; affirms that faction and corruption are the cause of the grievances; and makes the following observations on the means of obviating these sources of national misfortune.

Such being the mischiefs arising from faction and corruption, it will behove us carefully to provide against them. And as prevention is better than cure, perhaps no one thing will be more likely to answer the purpose, than that system in which every member of parliament shall find it his best interest to consult that of the public. That system, therefore, must be erroneous, which permits any permanent interest in the representative assembly. If the members of the lower house of parliament were truly elective, they would be under the controul of the people: they would be truly, at least to every useful purpose, a democratic assembly. The great body of the people;

not being able to make laws in person, if those to whom they delegated that trust should betray them, on a fresh election they could remove them. But if the members of the house of commons be hereditary, they become aristocratic; and whatever dangerous designs they may entertain, they can defy the people's voice. If, in short, elections were free, integrity, and not oratory, would be deemed the best qualification of the candidates. Men of property would be chosen, and needy adventurers excluded. Under the management of such men, one might hope for public virtue. One would hope their own interest in the state would secure them from faction; and render them superior to corruption. And, added to this, if their delegation were of short duration, a still farther security would be afforded. It would be the interest of such men to prefer their permanent property in the state, to a little temporary advantage; for little the advantage must be, if all permanent interest in the house of commons were excluded: were parliaments of short duration, and truly elective, it would require the mines of Potosi to corrupt them.'

The author prosecutes the subject through many chapters, and under a variety of distinct heads, which to enumerate would prove tedious to our readers, he endeavours to establish the opinion, that a defect in the representation is the cause of our public calamities; and that, according to the present mode of the election of representatives, the house of commons tends to an aristocracy. Amongst a variety of remarks relative to this subject, he observes, that to maintain a freedom of election in counties, the number of voters, instead of being increased, ought to be diminished, by increasing the qualification. This, he is of opinion, would be productive of many good effects. It would shorten the time usually spent in the election, and prevent drunkenness, riots, and tavern and other expences; besides, that bribery would be less practised amongst a set of independent, than of needy electors. He thinks that the present mode of election, both in counties and boroughs, is erroneous; for whilst the voters in the former are too numerous, those in the latter are too few. If there be likewise a fault in requiring more than one member for a place, he suggests that these objections might be removed, by requiring, not the counties or boroughs, but every market-town, and a certain district of the adjacent country, containing a sufficient number of adjoining parishes, to send one member.

In the Fourth Book, the author takes a general view of the statutes enacted at different times to remedy the grievances complained of; and in the Fifth, he considers the several schemes of private individuals for the accomplishment of the
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same purpose. Among the various improvements suggested, we meet the following in regard to the constitution of the house of peers.

‘ As the house of lords are constituted on an idea of wisdom, impartiality, and justice; and dignity, that is, independence, is the very foundation of this principle, if one might presume to suggest an improvement in the house of lords, it should be, not to lessen their dignity, by diminishing or limiting the number of their members, but to increase their dignity, by requiring in them, or, at least, in all new-made peers, a qualification so ample, that their own possessions should give a security against corruption, and insure in them a common interest with the community; an idea which is the foundation of that virtue, or principle, on which the house of commons also is founded. From the bishops, indeed, no qualification can be required; as they hold their seats by virtue of their ancient spiritual territories, called, under the Saxons, *frank-almoign*, or free alms; changed, by William the Conqueror, into the feudal or Norman tenure by barony; and the rather too, as they hold their honours but for life. Restore the dignity of the ancient barons, and the house of peers will, in some measure, be restored to their ancient weight in the scale of government. If a qualification be requisite in the members of the lower house of parliament, is it not strange no qualification should be required in the members of the highest; and especially, when (to repeat what is said before) their territories, which are to give them dignity, are the very foundation of the principle of their constitution? Should a peer be so indiscreet as to reduce his fortune, and become dependent, he ought to be degraded. A state of dependence is inconsistent with the dignity which is required in a peer of Great Britain. Whenever it shall happen, that men in distressed circumstances shall make a part of the British peerage, undoubtedly the equilibrium of power would be endangered. Contrary to their institution, it would invite, what of all other things ought to be avoided, ill-designing parties, faction, and their concomitant corruption. Whereas, the opulence and dignity of the peers of Great Britain should be such as to preclude, as far as human provisions can preclude, both faction and corruption; or, in the language of sir William Blackstone, their subservience to either of the other branches of the legislature. As the law pays that regard to the word, or honour, as it is called, of a peer, as to esteem it equal to another man’s oath, so his actions should have that respect paid to them, as not even to be suspected.’

On the whole, the author of this Essay has taken an extensive view of the polity of England, and collected a variety of observations, as well as made several remarks of his own, on this fruitful and interesting subject. The grand specific which he, like every other writer who has treated of political evils,

from the days of Aristotle to the present time, proposes, is to extinguish corruption in the affairs of government. That this would prove a remedy for all public grievances, is universally acknowledged; and the only question is, the most successful means of accomplishing this desirable purpose.

Dialogues concerning the Ladies. To which is added an Essay on the Antient Amazons. Small 8vo. 3s. sewed. Cadell.

Dialogue is a mode of composition sacred from its antiquity; entertaining as well as instructive, from its employing a variety of interlocutors of different manners, style, and pursuits. It was once cultivated with peculiar care, and the persons introduced were the most respectable, for the different qualifications which the author intended to recommend or enforce. Precepts from such instructors came with additional energy. This was the opinion of Cicero: 'we have not introduced Tithonus as a speaker,' says he, in his introduction to the Dialogue on Old Age, 'for there would be little weight in a fabulous personage; but Marcus Cato, already grown old, that the argument may be enforced with greater authority. We introduce Lælius and Scipio, at his house, surprised that he bears his age so easily, and Cato answering them. If he seems to contend with more learning than we perceive in his writings, you will attribute it to the Grecian literature, which, in his advanced life, he was very eager to attain.' In the Dialogue 'on Friendship,' he has introduced the speakers still more artificially, and seems almost to relate a conversation which had formerly passed; though there is more than one hint, that the greater part of it is his own. This kind of discourse, says he, 'which rests on the authority of our ancestors, especially those which were illustrious, has, somehow, more weight.'

in our own time, this ancient form has been revived with singular success by Dr. Hurd. Perhaps there is no work more classical in any modern language; nor any, since the days of Plato, more valuable for the judgment of the precepts, and the simple energy of the style. All these works recurred to our mind on reading the title of that before us. The learned reader will therefore judge of our disappointment and disgust, when we perceived the most trifling discourse, between the personages of a modern novel, in language that, so far from arising to elegance, sometimes creeps in the lowest colloquial strain. Authors are often injudicious, in forcing a comparison on their readers minds, which must be ultimately disadvantageous to their works: perhaps, if we had not been soon disgusted with the substance, we might have thought the lan-
guage

guage neat and clear; the anecdotes at least entertaining. But our readers shall judge for themselves.

‘*Mr. Percival.* Such a female character will certainly be a great improvement of your company, and especially to me; for I can truly say, with Montaigne, that “the conversation of beautiful and well-bred women is to me a most sweet commerce.” I do, however, sometimes meet with ladies, whom I confess, I have not gallantry enough to admire. In walking up the park yesterday, about an hour before dinner-time, I met Mrs. Stanhope, who has an advantageous person, and her dress was very splendid and attractive. But she is so vain, and so ignorant, that the impressions which her figure at first makes in her favour, are very speedily removed by her extreme frivolousness and manifest affectation. Her own person, and her own dress, seem, indeed, to be almost the only objects of her attention.

‘*Mr. Wyndham.* It has, in former times, been a subject of debate, whether women ought to be allowed to proceed to great degrees of expence and luxury, with respect to the decoration of their bodies. The fathers, and particularly St. Jerom, were very severe in their animadversions upon the ladies on this head. And I remember, that Bayle gives an account of a controversy on this subject, which originated from some sermons of Timotheus Mapheus, preached at Bologna, in which he had maintained, that women ought to be forbidden all superfluity of dress by a public decree. His eloquence had so powerful an effect, if not upon the ladies, at least upon the magistrates, that a decree was accordingly issued against the licentiousness of female dress. The women, however, were not without their advocates on this occasion; and more than one piece was published to shew, that the ladies should have liberty to adorn themselves, and ought not to be deprived of their ornaments. As to myself, I shall not inquire, whether a greater licentiousness of dress be not now adopted, even by modest women, than is in any respect proper or expedient, and such as would formerly have been thought characteristic only of women of pleasure: but I will at least venture to say this, that when so much pains and expence are employed on the decoration of the body, the mind should not be wholly left uncultivated. An elegant dress, and an agreeable person, would be rendered still more pleasing by a refined and cultivated understanding.’

The anecdotes are chiefly from Ballard’s ‘*Memoirs of Learned Ladies,*’ and Millar ‘*on the Distinction of Ranks in Society.*’ Indeed, though the learned reader may soon participate in our feelings, there are humbler minds who may find

and both instruction and entertainment in these Dialogues. But, even as modern performances, there is not sufficient discrimination of character and style *.

The account of the Antient Amazons is taken from Herodotus, Diodorus Siculus, Justin, Plutarch, &c. Every part of this description resembles a true story, heightened by a romantic imagination: even Plutarch allows, that great deductions should be made from the general relation, to reconcile it with truth. Female warriors were not indeed uncommon in antient times; and they seem to have been unusually frequent in Scythia, from whence some of them probably emigrated into Africa. Every thing else is fable and uncertainty; but we did not suspect, at this period, that any one believed them to have been deprived of their right breast, in order that they might more conveniently use the right arm. It is indeed mentioned by Herodotus, from whom it seems to have been copied by subsequent authors; but it is not supported by the general consent of antiquity: the poets, who most frequently introduce them, have given a very different testimony. Virgil describes the dress of Penthesilæa in the following manner:

‘Aurea subnectens *exertæ* cingula mammæ
Bellatrix.’

In these lines ‘*exertæ*’ has been always rendered *cut off*, without the shadow of an authority. ‘*Dentes exerti*,’ in Pliny, means teeth not covered with the jaw; ‘*exerti enses*,’ in Ovid, *drawn swords*. Even Virgil uses ‘*exerta papilla*’ on a very different occasion. It is evident therefore that, in this passage, the breast is only represented uncovered. Claudian, in his panegyric on the consulship of Probinus and Olybrius, describes Rome emulating Minerva.

‘Dextram nuda latus niveos *exerta* lacertos
Audacem reteggit mammam.’

In this instance, to ‘conquer the Parthians,’ or ‘restrain the Hydaspes,’ she must have cut off her arms, if this be the meaning of *exerta*. We could accumulate quotations, to show, that in sculpture and poetry, the Amazons were never represented in this manner, but with the right breast naked. We shall

* May we venture to suggest a plan, which arose from our perusal of this work? Female Dialogues may be probably written so as to afford great instruction. Suppose, for instance, one between Miss Carter, lady Millar, and Mrs. Macaulay Graham, on female dress, and the relative importance of ornaments and intellectual acquisitions. Another between Madame de Chatelet and Mrs. Montague, on the merits of Shakspeare.—Another, between Mrs. Chapone and Miss Seward, on the different female accomplishments. A work of this kind, if well executed, would probably be very successful.

however, only transcribe the following passages from Propertius, and the abbé Winkelman.

‘ — Amazonidum nudatis bellica mammis

Turba.’

Book iii. Eleg. 14.

Again,

‘ Felis Hyppolite nudâ tulit arma papilla.’ Book iv. Eleg. 3.

The abbé tells us ‘ Parmi les figures *ideales*, nous ne voyons que les Amazones avec de grosses & d’amples mammelles ; aussi comme elles represent des femmes, & non des filles, le bout de leur sein est visible.’ Histoire de l’Art de l’Antiquité, tom. ii. p. 151.

The Observer. 8vo. 6s. Dilly.

UNDER this title, the author has collected some miscellaneous essays ; and they are published in a volume, though they have never appeared in a detached form. We need not enquire into the disadvantages which would have arisen from a different plan : if the materials are good, it is of little consequence whether they are compressed in a single dish, or more ostentatiously displayed, with all the splendor of a modern entertainment. Our author himself recommends, that we should ‘ praise without comparifon,’ if we praise at all ; so that we are excluded from ascertaining his rank in the procession of different journalists, or enquiring in what he may be supposed an imitator, or where he would rise to the dignity of an original. If we consider then this collection of papers, without referring to the labours of others in the same walk, we should pronounce them neither void of entertainment or instruction. The author’s lucubrations are on subjects frequently peculiar to himself, and his reading has been often at a distance from the usual tracts. His pictures of life and manners are not distinguished by the vivacity of an original observer, but seem rather the fictions of the closet : and sometimes the recollection of others’ descriptions appears to have been the source from whence he has drawn a scene, rather than invention.

The ‘ farrago libelli,’ as usual in such circumstances, consists of various subjects. The only attempt at a new character, or rather a new drawing, is in that of the Dampers ; and it is executed with spirit and justness. The species of this race are well known : they are the enemies of vivacity, and the checks of mirth ; they silence the sprightly jest by an ill-timed question, and blast the harmless smile by the scrutinizing brow of suspicion, or the sneer of malice. For the particular traits,

traits, we must refer to our author. The stories of Calliope and Melissa are amusing; but they consist of little except common situations, in no unusual style. The story of Abdalla and Zarima is less trite; and the Diary of Chaubert exhibits a well-drawn picture of a misanthrope. The account of magic, with the anecdotes of magicians, is written in a lively manner, and is extremely interesting: the facts are not common, and the remarks are ingenious.

The great object of the work is to give a 'compressed and unmixed' account of the Literature of the Greeks, 'carrying down the history, in a chain of anecdotes, 'from the earliest poets, to the death of Menander.' It is not pretended that this is entirely original: many parts of it are commonly known, and the Twenty-sixth Number on the great Libraries of Antiquity, is nearly the same with the relation of Mr. Astle, in his *Origin and Progress of Writing*. The Life of Pythagoras is clear and accurate; but our author has not remarked the very extensive influence of his opinions, or hinted at the hidden meaning of some of his peculiar tenets. There is much reason to think, that a great part of the philosophy of Greece was a transcript only from the doctrines of this early and extensive enquirer, who pierced through the mystery of the pagan theology, and saw, in the opinions of the Egyptians, that truth, which many of the Grecian travellers had misunderstood and misrepresented. The Mysteries of numbers, and the Golden thigh, also served probably to hide some important doctrines: these have been explained with much plausibility, though we cannot now say with how much truth, by Mr. Tucker, under the assumed name of Edward Search. Our author's account of Homer is just and satisfactory; but when we read his relation of the manner in which his rhapsodies were probably connected by Pisistratus, we could not refrain from making a modern application, and, for the Grecian bard and his collector, substituting the names of Ossian and Macpherson. We suspect it might then be a true account of the origin of Fingal and Temora.

The Athenian Vision is well invented, and with one single failure, supported with propriety. The author unfortunately mentions the modern painter Mengs. We were indeed surprised at his speaking of Micon as the rival of Polygnotus, the celebrated Athenian painter, since we have not been able to find any authority for his existence. Aristotle, in his *Poetics*, cap. ii. p. 236, opposes him to Pauson and Dionysius, in which he holds the first rank, and Dionysius the second; but probably this subject may be better elucidated by count Caylus, in his *memoire 'on the Painting of the Ancients,'* among the

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Memoirs of the Academy of Belles Lettres *. We have already observed, that Orpheus probably did not write the treatise *Περὶ Λιθῶν*, which the author attributes to him.

The language of this work is very incorrect; and those who examine it will think the Observer has acted politically, in wishing to avoid comparisons. *Peritrelion*, *volumn*, and some other words, may be attributed to the printer; but *pailing*, *detering*, *vouchsafements*, and similar ones, must be owing to the author. Reviewers are the guardians of language, and we cannot suffer these errors to escape without reprehension. The construction too is often faulty. 'This is not the case with *them* who are born.' It is *better* to make a breach in any thing, *rather* than good manners. If the observations are pursued, similar mistakes, for they are numerous, must be avoided. We cannot forgive the musician, '*chordâ qui semper oberrat eadem.*'

A Reply to the Treasury Pamphlet, entitled 'The proposed System of Trade with Ireland explained.' 8vo. 2s. Debrett.

THE proposed system of trade between Great Britain and Ireland being a matter of national importance, ought to be investigated by the friends of the two countries with the strictest impartiality, and by those of the former, in particular, with all possible precision. In conformity to these principles, in our last Review, we laid before our readers such an account of the pamphlet on that subject, as might afford sufficient information with respect to the arguments which it contained. From the same regard to free discussion, and to the great commercial interests involved in the system now agitated, we shall likewise exhibit the most essential observations which occur in the present Reply.

After some remarks of a general nature, the author examines the validity of the argument relative to the foundation of complaint, on the part of Ireland, in being restricted from importing into this country the produce of the British colonies. The author's sentiments on this subject coincide with those of lord Sheffield, which we lately had occasion to mention, and ought certainly to have great weight in the deliberations for compromising the different claims of Britain and Ireland.

* We have since found Micon, mentioned by Pliny; and the following passage is literally copied by our author. '*Hic Delphis ædem pinxit, hic & Athenis porticum, quæ Pæcile vocatur gratuito, cum partem ejus Micon mercede pingeret.*' Lib. xxxv. cap. 9.

‘ In the hour of our liberality, says, he, we gave her (Ireland) every thing, except what we could not have given her, without ruin to ourselves. We removed every restraint that could fetter her industry; we opened to her the trade of our colonies with the rest of the world, and bid her go in search of wealth in every port that would admit her traders.—We promised her encouragement; we promised her protection. All we reserved, was the exclusive privilege of supplying our own markets with the produce of our own colonies, without suffering the benefits and advantages of that commerce to be intercepted by the way, or diverted into other channels. In other words, we gave liberty and encouragement to our sister kingdom to get rich at the expence of all the rest of the world, if she could, and only provided that she should not intercept our wealth, or establish her fortunes at our expence.

‘ In this truly generous and equitable arrangement, Ireland had every cause to be grateful, and none to complain. We did her no injustice; we withheld from her no right. Our colonies were the purchase of her own blood, the acquisition of our own treasures, and the work of our own industry. Their settlement or their maintenance never cost Ireland a farthing—they were our own offspring, and we had entered into such a compact with them as that relation suggested. We engaged ourselves to purchase their commodities, to the exclusion of all similar productions in every other country; and they pledged themselves, in return, to carry those commodities to no other market but ours. We undertook all risks for their protection, and they reserved to us all the benefits arising from that security.

‘ Such is the connection, which, by every principle of justice, by the law of nations, and by the custom of all the other powers of Europe, has been universally acknowledged to subsist between the mother country and her colonies. A trade with them of any kind, or of any extent, must have been, therefore, considered as a favour granted to Ireland; nor could she have a shadow of pretext for complaining of any reserve, much less of a reserve which, while it left her in equal possession of every other advantage, merely secured us against any future rivalry on her part in our own markets.’

In ‘ The Proposed System of Trade with Ireland Explained,’ it was argued, that the Irish were not likely to supply England with the commodities of Africa and America, ‘ because it will not be contended that the shortest and cheapest way of importing goods from Africa and America to this country is, by carrying them first into a port of Ireland, and then bringing them from thence to a port here.’ On this passage the author of the Reply animadverts with his usual vivacity; but we cannot help thinking that he deviates from the direct line of argument, as if actuated with *circuitous* reasoning, into
vague

vague declamation. That our readers however may judge for themselves, the following extract is inserted.

* But it was upon the very principle of this circuitous commerce that the whole system of our navigation laws was built. Can the author be so ignorant as to suppose that it was the immediate gain upon the commodities that induced our ancestors to confine the colonial and foreign trade? Was this the only benefit they meant to secure to their descendants by procuring for them their Great Sea Charter?—When he and the minister next read the navigation act together, a study which the latter has condescended to recommend to all the ignorant members of the house of commons, I would advise them to consider the preamble of the act which they distinguish by that name—The advantages attending the exchange of our colonial commodities, and the vent it occasioned for the native commodities of the kingdom—the rendering this country the staple of plantation goods as well as of the commodities of other countries for supplying the plantations; the increase of shipping and seamen, from the number of hands employed in the carriage, in the landing, in the storing, and re-shipping of the colonial produce, as well as of the productions of other countries, importing their merchandize in exchange; the various gradations of industry arising out of this complicated interchange, and the diffusion of wealth through every class of the people, from this self-multiplying commerce: these were the chief among the enlarged objects which the great characters who framed, explained, and methodised the navigation laws, embraced in their system. It was by having these great objects secured to her, that England became the emporium of Europe; the mart where other nations found the readiest and largest supplies, and the cheapest barter, and whence, by circuitous trade, these supplies were conveyed to every part of the globe. It was by this circuitous commerce that she indemnified herself for what nature had denied her, and made the produce of every climate, and every soil, her own. In a word, it was on the foundation of this circuitous commerce that she seated her naval power, and seizing the sceptre of the ocean, extended her conquests and her influence to every quarter of the world.'

Though it should be admitted that the author of the Reply is sometimes excursive in his mode of argument, we have sufficient proof that he can keep very closely to the point, when either the writer on whom he comments, or the minister, appears to be open to animadversion. But it is necessary that we confine ourselves to the essential objects in dispute.

After treating of the proposed system under general heads, he descends to particulars, and mentions different species of manufactures, in which he contends that Ireland would have greatly the advantage of this country. With respect to that

of silk, he affirms that the manufacturers have not hesitated to assert, that the British manufacturer, supposing the duties in both countries to be equalized, would have every reason to dread a competition from the Irish, even in the British market.

In regard to the woollen manufacture, particularly the old draperies, in which are included the finest cloths, he admits that this branch of the manufacture may not be *immediately* affected by the new system; but affirms, that the manufacturers have expressed apprehensions with respect to the future. He observes, that one of the principal reasons assigned by the evidence before the committee, why Ireland does not manufacture a greater quantity of finer cloth is, that they have not at present a sufficient number of skilful workmen to engage in it. But he adds, that from the vicinity of the two countries, and from the extraordinary bounties given for the encouragement of the manufacture of fine cloths by the Dublin Society, this circumstance is not likely to operate long in our favour. There would indeed be just cause for apprehension, if the security of our woollen manufactures depended entirely upon the circumstance here mentioned.

The author afterwards makes similar remarks, on the consequences which he alleges would result to the trade of refined sugars, cotton, leather, soap, and candles, and lastly to that of corn; to all which he subjoins some additional considerations, of which the following is a part.

‘ With respect to the equivalent that has been stipulated for all the sacrifices which we are to make to Ireland, the author sums it up in a very few lines. It consists, he says, in a monopoly of consumption, and an aid towards supporting the general expence of the empire.

‘ What the monopoly of consumption is, he does not chuse to tell us. I suppose he means that monopoly of trade which in the first pages of his pamphlet Ireland is said to give Great Britain at this moment. In that case there is nothing new given by Ireland—nothing that can be called a return for the intended indulgencies—Or would he insinuate, that the ninth resolution is favourable to Great Britain, and that the preference it stipulates for articles of her growth, produce, and manufacture, above similar articles imported into Ireland from foreign states, is amply to indemnify her for the superiority which the other resolutions will give to Ireland, as well in the British as in all foreign markets? The whole body of manufacturers throughout Great Britain are of a very different opinion.

‘ What the aid towards the general expences of the empire is to be, he does not tell us. “ Whatever surplus shall accumulate to the hereditary revenue from the increase of trade under the new regulations, above a stated sum, Ireland is to apply to
naval

naval services, the particulars of which may be ascertained by the bill to be passed in that country for appropriating that surplus."—Here we have the grand equivalent which the present minister is to secure to Great Britain, as well for the concessions which he himself is to grant to Ireland, as for the more lavish and impolitic concessions of former times and former ministers. But in the name of all that is due to an oppressed and insulted nation, to what does this equivalent amount? An increase of revenue, which is avowedly to arise from a participation of the profits of the British commerce, is to indemnify Great Britain for the sacrifice of these profits! The emigration of British manufacturers, the transfer of British wealth, the defalcation of British revenue, and the general impoverishment of the British people, are all to be compensated by the generosity of Ireland in consenting that her own parliament shall appropriate to whatever purposes they shall think fit, under the denomination of naval services, part of the resources which she is to acquire from the resort and imported industry of these manufacturers, from the influx of that wealth, and from the depredations upon this revenue. Is, then, the commerce of Great Britain to become more advantageous to her when transferred to Ireland, than when she reserved all the benefits of it to her own subjects, and applied a proportion of it to the public exigences? Are these profits worse applied as pledges for the payment of the national debt, and resources for future expenditure, than when they shall be at the disposal of the parliament of an independent kingdom, for the protection of a trade that is to be enriched at our expence?

On most of the articles of which he treats, his objections appear to be forcible. But as they depend upon the evidence of manufacturers, with which we are as yet but little acquainted, the validity of the arguments can only be appreciated by a knowledge of the judgment and sincerity of those manufacturers. Uncertainty may raise doubts, and a regard to interest may excite apprehensions, neither of which have any solid foundation; but, until deliberate enquiry shall have ascertained that both those doubts and apprehensions are groundless, it would be unpardonable rashness to make such concessions as might endanger the prosperity of the nation. In the adjustment of the proposed commercial regulations, it ought likewise never to be forgotten, that no argument in favour of them, and drawn from the present state of Ireland, can be of perpetual validity; because from the moment that those regulations are enacted, the circumstances of that country will be in continual progression; and what at present is equality will, in the revolution of some years, be found productive of a new, and then, an irremediable distinction.

A Dialogue between Dr. Johnson and Dr. Goldsmith, in the Shades, relative to the former's Strictures on the English Poets, particularly Pope, Milton, and Gray. 4to. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

THE title gives a full account of what the reader may expect in this performance. The poor doctor pleads guilty to the charge of partiality.

' You say I envy'd ;—who's from envy free ?
Yet objects now with different eyes I see.
Thro' what false mediums do our passions shine !
How gross affections that I thought divine !'

And again,

' Prejudice will veil the richest thought,
And hurry misapply, and raise a fault.
In Pope and Gray I've criticis'd a line
Full oft, dear friend, that never must be mine.
In Shakespeare, Milton, such resistless strains,
Beyond the hopes of art, or patient pains.'

How far his opinion may alter in another state we know not ; it would have required much greater abilities than our author possesses, to have extorted such acknowledgments from him some time since ; and it may be considered as rather unfair, to put sentiments in his mouth when dead, that he would have reprobated while alive. Though we apprehend part of the doctor's critique on Gray must excite disgust in many persons of taste, we cannot but consider *that* on Pope, as equally impartial, judicious, and elegant : and, though his political principles induced him to place Milton's in an unfavourable, possibly an uncandid, light, his opponents, equally biassed by party-prejudice, have given the worst constructions to his sentiments they would possibly admit. We can find little else objectionable in the Life of Milton, but much deserving of the highest approbation. Whatever this gentleman may think, he is more obliged to his biographer, notwithstanding some censure intermingled with his praise, than to his bard, for such complimentary verses as the following :

' He taught the page to swell in bold relief,
And rose secure from time and ev'ry thief ;
For he who steals from him the lightest spark,
Like Han, would hide the diamond in the dark.
And say, what bard has Milton yet out-done ?
His weakest wing has rested on the sun.'

These lines are strangely obscure and confused ; but those alluding to Pope, are more so :

' Or to Isaiah's numbers dare aspire,
(Who sung Jehovah in Jehovah's fire)
In all, the poet shines throughout confess'd,
Not only happy, but too often blest ;

For shade is friendly to the feasted eye,
As clouds betimes adorn the richest sky.—

The following character, given by Johnson, of the same poet, is probably inferior to nothing in this performance; and it is but fair to lay it before the reader:

'Tho' his contention with the scribbling croud
Was like the sun contending with a cloud,
Which the next wind would hastily disperse,
And leave the day as radiant as his verse;
Yet why should Pope attack, with keenest wit,
The short-liv'd strains the poor Ephemeron writ;
Gay epigram, like squibs, that rose to stink,
And elegies that only mourn'd in ink?'

Creation, a Poem. By Samuel Hughes, M. A. 4to. 1s. Doddsley.

IF this gentleman has not
'Undone creation at a jerk,'—
he has certainly made 'sad work of it.' The performance is undoubtedly a pious, but it is a very dull one: the sentiments are often just, but never new; and the hackneyed images with which it abounds are generally expressed in a harsh, prosaic manner. Can any one, with half an ear, mistake the following lines for poetry?

'Whither can the eye stretch and not behold.'—

'Resolve the question, matter is uncreate.'—

— 'E'en in the smallest work
Of human art thou *see'st* design, and *own'st*—

'Its complex operations, still in its course'—

— 'Thou *dard'st* to break

The shakling bonds of flippant rhyme.'—

Surely the words marked in Italics are sufficient to break the reader's teeth who wishes to give them full force in the pronunciation. We could add to this nosegay of poetic weeds, but shall content ourselves with exhibiting a specimen of our author's descriptive talents. The quotation, we apprehend, alludes to the whale-fishery.

'The proud Leviathan himself, who stretch'd
Upon the Ocean's back, an island seems;
Or in rude gambols his unwieldy bulk
Writhing, deems all the wat'ry realm his own.'

Or is connected with nothing preceding, and merely serves to make out a description taken from *Milton; the unhappy epithet 'writhing' excepted, which is substituted for 'wallowing,' and gives a most incongruous idea, when applied to a

* See Paradise Lost, book vii. l. 410.

bulky object. The concluding words, as we profess our ignorance of the Leviathan's opinions, shall pass without a comment.

'E'en he, gigantic as he is, subdued
By man's superior art, a victim falls;
But not unprofitably falls. Though dead,
He garnish not the festive board, or add
Luxurious honor to the rich repast,
Yet still, so provident is Nature's God,
For him the sailor braves the stormy flood.'

Here, though Mr. Hayes condescends to inform us, that a whale is not killed for the same purpose as a turtle, to regale our festive aldermen, we think he might have told us on what account he fell a victim, and answered the end of his creation. But as spermaceti, blubber, and train-oil, would not appear to advantage in Miltonic verse, we shall excuse the omission, and proceed.

'E'en to the frozen North, where, six long moons,
Inhospitable darkness shrouds the pole;
Where snow eternal caps the mountains top,
And threat'ning ice, in many a ridgy steep,
Peers o'er the waves indissoluble, there,
Reckless of danger, the bold sailor shapes
His perilous course; in his own element
Advent'rous seeks the giant, nor avoids
Th' unequal conflict: in the trembling boat
Fearless he stands, and launches from his arm
The pointed weapon, conscious what a prize
Awaits the issue of successful toil.'

Here we shall quit the giant, and the gigantic encomiums on our Greenland adventurers; who we find are not only 'fearless' and 'reckless of danger,' but that they do not even 'avoid an unequal conflict.' But where the inequality lies, excepting in their favour, we cannot see; or where a whale is to be fought, but in his 'own element.' Amplification is sometimes a beauty in poetry: that it is not always so, we trust our quotation sufficiently evinces.

Mr. Hayes' last poem, which obtained the university prize, though not a very capital performance, was infinitely superior to the present. We shall not presume to question the judgment of those who conferred it, though we cannot but express our surprize, that his claim to the rents of the Kissingbury farm is not disputed by some more lineal descendant of Apollo. To adopt the words of Shakspeare,

— 'Ye gods, it doth amaze us,
A man of such a gentle temper, should
So get the start of the majestic world,
And bear the palm alone!'

The Follies of Oxford: or Cursory Sketches on a University Education, from an Under Graduate to his Friend in the Country.
4to. 2s. Doddsley.

THIS young Oxonian's performance, for such it appears evidently to be, is not destitute of poetic, nor satyric merit. We are sometimes rather provoked at his negligence and incorrectness, as he could certainly have improved many passages had he paid proper attention to them. Some censures on the governing part of the university might have been omitted; and we can assure the under-graduate, it is generally supposed that academic regulations require enforcement, not relaxation. Here possibly 'the gall'd jade winces.' But it would not be fair to try a *jeu d'esprit*, like the present, with critical severity. In many passages, the author seems to have in his eye, *The Progress of Discontent*, a juvenile production of Mr. Warton's. The encomium on that gentleman, which concludes the poem, will, we apprehend, give no unfavourable idea of it.

'Pensive around the common room,
While Warton "snuffs his pipe's perfume,"

See C——, whose inglorious name

Will never grace the rolls of fame,

Strut dignified—with not a sprig

Of bay leaves stuck about his wig!

"Lo there" (indignant Genius cries)

"In yon clipt shade, a Warton lies!

How oft, while Eve her landscapes drew,

He hail'd my steps to yonder yew!

For him I wove, in Fancy's loom

A texture of perennial bloom!

For him, with joy th' assembled Nine,

Their amplest wreath conspir'd to twine!

Yet what alas, but idle praise,

Rewards my sweetest minstrel's lays!

"Thus droop my sons, with scorn repaid,

Listless amid the sombre shade!

What though I raise the Muse's flame,

With ardent hopes of deathless fame,

Yet cold Neglect's severe controul,

Chills the warm current of the soul!"

'And see, the silver slipper'd maid,

Her robes of glossy verdure fade!

See, in the widest anguish prest,

To yon pale urn her heaving breast!

Still Nature's hand, her streams around,

Scatters with simple flowers the ground;

But, mark'd by no poetic eye,

Their hues in breathing incense die.

'Well may the faded virgin glow,

With varied energies of woe.

Long has she deem'd her "triumphs" vain,
 Though her own poet fram'd the strain,
 Haply ev'n he may breathe e'er long
 The spirit of despairing song,
 And own, reclin'd his pensive head,
 The "tears of Isis" justly shed.'

*The Art of Eloquence. A Didactic Poem. Book the First. 4to.
 2s. 6d. Dilly.*

WE are told, in an advertisement prefixed, 'It seldom happens that an anonymous writer can gain even a momentary attention from the public, to any representation which may respect himself or his motives for publishing: the author therefore of the following poem does not wish to detain his readers on a subject that cannot interest them in the slightest degree; but as it is possible that the little piece he submits with all diffidence to their inspection, may not be received with utter disregard, he begs leave to suggest to them a few observations, to introduce it the more readily to their notice.

'It has frequently occurred to the author, that, among the various subjects which come within the province of the Didactic Poem, there is no one perhaps better adapted to its genius, than the "Art of Eloquence." That however it has 'never been poetically treated:—And the author, amidst his frequent reflections on so singular a circumstance, had many a time conceived a general plan for the use of the didactic poet, before he entertained the most distant idea of assuming that character himself.

'The subject (he imagined) might be divided into Four Books. "The first book might consist of general precepts—the former part containing—a Delineation of Eloquence, as it appears among ruder Nations—in polished Society—in this Country—amidst its three great Provinces, the Bar, the Parliament, and the Pulpit: hence its three essentials deduced, Argument, Ornament, and Pathos. The latter part containing—a Survey of these Essentials—as forming an Oration, &c. &c. &c.

'The second Book might be confined to the Eloquence of the Bar—or—the Argumentative species of Oratory.

'The third Book to the Eloquence of the Senate—or—the Ornamental species.

'The fourth Book to the Eloquence of the Pulpit—or—the Pathetic Species.'

Such is the plan of the author; and, according to the success of the first Book now offered to the public, the suppression or publication of the others depend. How far he is entitled to encouragement, in the prosecution of his undertaking, the reader may form some idea from the introductory lines, which contain a general eulogium on eloquence. They

are

are neither the best nor worst in the performance, but will probably suffer less by transplantation than any other.

‘ Whilst Britain’s Genius bids the sister-arts
In liberal homage to rejoice, the Muse
Full oft deploring thy dishonour’d wreath,
Fair Eloquence ! and emulous to raise
Its sombre colours, from their mass of shade,
To ancient lustre ; pants to trace thy art
(Congenial with her own) amid the scenes,
Where orators of old with kindling voice
Drew Virtue from its slumbers. Hence the charms
That into music melodiz’d the speech ;
Ennobled diction ; fir’d it with the flame
Of patriotic freedom ; wak’d the soul
To action ; and gave dignity to life !

‘ Spirit of Athens, over Albion breathe
Charms not inferior ! for here flourish laws
That foster free-born worth ! In union here
(Erst visionary deem’d) the threefold form
Of senate lives ; yet realiz’d alone
By favour’d Britons ! Here religion beams
Her genuine light ! From images like these
Might rise the soul of Eloquence to heights
Supernal, such as Rome nor Athens knew.’

The author seems to possess both judgment and learning.

*Miscellanies upon various Subjects. By John Aubrey, Esq. F. R. S.
A New Edition, with considerable Improvements. To which is
prefixed, some Account of his Life. 8vo. 3s. in Boards. Ottridge.*

THE change of manners and opinions is so gradual, that it is sometimes necessary to step back a hundred years, to perceive in what we differ from our ancestors. At this time the belief of dreams, impulses, apparitions, &c. is scarcely to be found, even among the vulgar : in the last century, persons of the first rank in letters firmly trusted to the truth of every sort of superstitious delusion. It was with reason therefore, that we lately called credulity the native disease of the mind, when we had occasion to examine some striking effects of the force of imagination. Mr. Aubrey’s *Miscellanies*, which are now for the third time published, contain a considerable collection of omens, apparitions, dreams, impulses, &c. and furnish fresh instances of its great power at all times, and over minds the best cultivated. Mr. Aubrey himself was bred at Oxford, studied the law, and was early elected a member of the Royal Society ; so that we must suppose him master of a great part of the science at that time known ; and, from his letters, he seems to have been intimately acquainted with the first men of that period. But neither his learning, his philosophy, or the conversation

of his cotemporaries, could open his eyes so as to discern the trifling nature of many of these stories, the connection of some of his narratives with natural causes, or the very great deductions, which are at all times necessary, on account of terror and superstition, of a guilty conscience, or a mind naturally weak. The sailor's cap was clearly carried off in a gale of wind, and the schoolboy's top was so certainly taken up by a whirlwind, that the story gives a description of the phenomenon, with almost philosophical precision: so true is the remark of Bacon, 'that imagination is next of kin to miracle-working faith.'

The account of the second-sight is more accurately detailed in this book than in any other. We shall only add to it, from our own observations, that those who now are supposed to possess this extraordinary faculty, and they are very few, are gloomy and melancholy, generally the victims of a disordered imagination. So far from valuing this gift of prophecy as an advantage, their life is burthensome, from the distressing ideas which continually arise. They still own, as Mr. Aubrey observes, that their art is to be taught; but they earnestly dissuade every one from attempting to learn it. This fact, while it precludes the suspicion of a voluntary imposition, seems to fix this state of mind among the diseases of the imagination. Their being often right in their predictions, is no proof of the reality of the faculty; for we well know, that confident pretenders never want proselytes. Since refinement has more generally extended, and social intercourse increased, these gloomy visionaries are almost forgotten.

It might perhaps be produced as an argument against all these fancies, that since a collector, so diligent as Mr. Aubrey, has not been able to compile a larger volume; since they are in general so vaguely and indecisively related; many produced by natural causes; and some, particularly the pranks played at Woodstock with Cromwell's commissioners, since discovered to be human contrivances; it might be alleged, with little farther examination, that the whole was to be attributed to similar causes. Better arguments indeed are not wanting; but we may safely leave the subject, already in its wane, to the philosophy, perhaps to the scepticism, of the present age. Either will be equally fatal to the folly and superstition, which can for a moment credit the influence of these preternatural phantoms.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

A Reply to the Answer to a 'Short Essay on the Modes of Defence,'
&c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wilkie.

WE noticed the two former works, viz. the Essay and the Answer, in our last Number, and remarked, that the principal and most important positions of the essayist were unshaken.

shaken. The Reply is acute, spirited, and severe: we doubt if it be not too personal, and would advise the noble author (we beg pardon if we are mistaken) to curb the exuberance of his indignation, lest a general question should sink into a personal dispute. The replier holds fast his former advantages, is fully master of his own ground, and annoys his antagonist with so much vigour and address, that it will be no easy task to continue the contest. We need not enlarge on the particular merits of the dispute, since that is to be decided by much abler reviewers. If we are right in our conjectures, the duke's present antagonist fights with the pen as successfully as he has done with the sword.

Impartial Reflections upon the Question, for equalizing the Duties, upon the Trade, between Great Britain and Ireland. By the Right Hon. Lord Mountmorres. 8vo. 2s. Almon.

As lord Mountmorres is not undistinguished for abilities in the legislature of his own country, it affords us pleasure to find that he exerts them on the present important occasion. His lordship's reflections discover a liberality worthy of his rank; and at the same time he urges, by a just representation of the commercial laws now existing between Great Britain and Ireland, the expediency of granting that kingdom the proposed equality of trade. In support of his argument, lord Mountmorres, in an appendix, produces, from Scobell's Statutes, an act passed during the time of the Commonwealth in 1651, by which the privileges of the navigation-law were expressly extended to Ireland.

Manufactures improper Subjects of Taxation. 8vo. 1s. Phillips.

Though it must be admitted that great caution is always necessary in taxing manufactures, we are not thence to conclude, that works of industry ought never to be rendered objects of taxation. This indeed seems to be the opinion of the author of the present pamphlet. But he appears to found his sentiments upon the idea, that by laying a tax on manufactures, they would necessarily be cramped or annihilated. Should the latter of these effects ensue, the tax would doubtless be extremely pernicious; but so far from this being unavoidable, even the former of the supposed effects might, and ought to be avoided, by a taxation prudently imposed.

To supply the exigencies of government, without hurting the manufactures, the author proposes a tax which would affect all ranks of people in proportion to their expenditure. The tax alluded to, is upon the real rents of lands and houses, to be paid by the tenant or occupier. But if this should not be deemed expedient, he thinks that even the most common necessities of life, flour and meat, ought to be taxed in preference to manufactures. But would not such an impost ultimately

mately affect those objects, which the author is so anxious to exclude from the effects of taxation?

The Crisis; or immediate Concernments of the British Empire.
8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.

This young author (for such he acknowledges himself to be) takes an adventurous flight into the regions of politics, where he makes a variety of observations, not only relative to the affairs of Great Britain, but of other countries. Though not defective in point of judgment, he appears to have been much assisted in this excursion by a buoyant imagination. For what reason he has entitled this production the *The Crisis*, we know not, unless the name alludes to the experiment he has made of his literary abilities, in which we are glad to find him so successful.

Ironicalastles; or, A Cloud of Facts against 'A Gleam of Comfort.'
8vo. 2s. Shepperson and Reynolds.

The pamphlet to which this is a reply, was an ironical attack on the members of the present administration, against whose characters, as well as public conduct, the author directed his ridicule. The writer of the production before us, at the same time that he refutes many of the assertions in '*A Gleam of Comfort*,' vindicates the characters of the ministers, and displays in a light not very favourable, those of their principal opponents. Amongst those we are not surprised to find some marked with the features of republicanism; but that almost any British subject, much more a person high in office, should now be represented as a Jacobite, excites in us a suspicion that the author is not divested of prejudice.

The Danger of violent Innovations in the State exemplified from the Reigns of the two first Stuarts, in a Sermon preached at Canterbury, Janury 31, 1785. By George Berkeley, D. L. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

The subject of this sermon is taken from Prov. xx. 21. 'My son, fear thou the Lord and the king, and meddle not with them that are given to change.' The preacher divides his text into two heads; showing, first, that the civil government is the ordinance of God; and secondly, pointing out the danger and the sin of making violent innovations in any constitution of government. With the wisdom of the politician he unites the precepts of the divine; and recommends it to all true patriots, as a public duty, that they would apply themselves to personal reformation.

Plain Facts, submitted to the Common Sense of the People of England. 8vo. 1s. Jarvis.

This author is a vehement apologist for the last administration, which he particularly vindicates with respect to three transactions, namely, the coalition, the receipt-tax, and Mr. Fox's

Fox's East India bill. So far as affirmation can influence the public opinion, he seems to be well qualified for the office of a political advocate, or rather indeed of a partizan; for when his purpose requires plain facts, if they are not to be found, he can make them. On this principle he observes, at setting out, 'It is now become a generally acknowledged fact, that the Portland administration, as it is commonly termed, was suffered to take place at the time, with a view only to lay hold of some favourable occasion, when its final overthrow might be more effectually accomplished.' It is the misfortune of unfounded assertions, that they generally hurt the cause which they are intended to serve.

Discurfory Thoughts on the late Acts of Parliament, viz. Medicine, Horfe, Window, Post, Plate, &c. By Francis Spilsbury. No Publisher's Name, or Price.

Mr. Spilsbury, whose interest excites him to defend the utility of advertised medicines, inveighs with great warmth against the act of parliament for granting a duty on the venders of those commodities. So far Mr. Spilsbury acts upon obvious, and perhaps excusable principles; but having appeared as a champion against the ministry in one point, this redoubtable opponent belabours them with the *pestle* for several other parts of their conduct; such as the commutation-act, the post-act, the plate-act, &c. And all this in open defiance of the old adage, *Ne Sutor ultra crepidam*.

General Remarks on the British Fisheries. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.

The inattention of the legislature to the improvement of the British fisheries is one of the most surprising, as well as most blameable circumstances respecting the public œconomy. Who can think, without astonishment, that an insular nation, on the coasts of which may be found so great a variety of fish, should yet be supplied with this article of diet almost entirely by foreigners? The author of the present pamphlet shews, by an abstract taken from the custom-house-books, that the value of fish brought by the Dutch into the port of London, from February 3, 1783, to November 1, 1784, amounted to two hundred and seventy thousand five hundred and eighteen pounds. Many are the pernicious effects resulting from the toleration of this practice: for not only a great sum of money is drawn out of the kingdom every year, but the price of fish is kept up in the metropolis, at the pleasure of those who now monopolize the trade; and in the northern and western islands, particularly, numbers of the inhabitants, who, by employing themselves in the fisheries, might be enabled to live comfortably, and contribute to the good of the public, are at present pining under all the miseries of want and oppression. But to render the fisheries of this country flourishing, it is not sufficient that the inhabitants of the coasts and islands be excited to this useful species of industry: the best manner of curing the

the fish must be carefully practised; and even the quality of the salt used for this purpose ought likewise to be an object of consideration. The author of the pamphlet before us throws out several useful hints with respect to the plan which should be pursued in the improvement of the fisheries; and as this important subject is soon to engage the deliberation of parliament, we hope that such measures will be adopted, as may ensure success to a branch of commerce, not only profitable to individuals, but advantageous to the nation in general, and highly conducive likewise to the support of our maritime power.

P O E T R Y.

The Prospect; or, Re-union of Britain and America: a Poem.
4to. 1s. 6d. Bew.

We find that this poem is written by an American officer; and if his merits as a writer are not very conspicuous, as a well-wisher to both nations he is entitled to our respect and approbation. Some of his more violent countrymen however will not, in all probability, thoroughly approve of several invectives contained in it against their royal allies; such, for instance, as in the following passage, where we are told that a second Pitt,

— ‘ Shall frame the great, the bless’d design
Again Britannia’s sever’d sons to join :
Stern fate propitious on his wish shall smile,
And crown with fair success his gen’rous toil.
Then haughty France shall rue the fatal hour,
When first, misled by boundless lust of pow’r,
To crush fair Albion all her arts were tried,
To tear the western empire from her side :
Spain, too, shall curse the part her monarch took,
And every tyrant from his throne be shook.’

The Hastingsiad; an Heroic Poem. In Three Cantos. 4to. 1s. 6d.
Debrett.

Of these three cantos, the first only makes its appearance. It is a satirical performance, of which governor Hastings and his lady are the principal objects. Though we do not much approve publications of this kind, we cannot deny but the author’s abilities seem much superior to many of our political bards.

Carmen in honorem Georgii Saville, Baronetti, &c. Auctore
Johanne Wright. 4to. 1s. 6d. White.

‘ Ergo Savilli blandula luridâ
Clauduntur umbrâ lumina ? cui rapax
Pepercit Orcus ? mors profanam
Unde manum abstinuisse gaudet ?’

Of the words marked in Italics we shall only observe, that ‘ ergo,’ though used by classical writers as an angry interrogative,

tive, is here totally out of its place. That the infantine epithet, connected with 'lumina,' would be descriptive of a Lesbia lamenting her dead sparrow; or a boarding-school miss her drooping goldfinch; but sounds ridiculous, when applied to the sensible and manly Saville.—That 'unde' is a poor substitute for *à quo*, and that 'gaudet' is nothing to the purpose. From these opening lines, the reader may form a judgment of the whole—*ex pede Herculem*.

The Veteran, a Poem. 4to. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

An old soldier is here introduced, relating to a friend his eventful history during the space of forty years, that he was

'doom'd to share

The rudest perils and fatigues of war.
Of humble birth, but of right honest kin,
He aim'd in youth a warrior's praise to win,
And bore contented with the soldier's name,
His scanty pittance and contracted fame:
Till now, at length, in life's extremest stage,
Grown grey in arms, and chill'd with wintry age,
By wounds retarded, and with want oppress'd,
He sought to spend his latter days in rest;
Such rest indeed as, to his anxious vows,
The gallant soldier's rigid lot allows;
Still in the guise of sleepless war to guard
The sloping rampart, and the foe retard.'

The lines are in general spirited and easy; and the author, if not a soldier himself, appears well acquainted with military affairs. Some inaccuracies, and bad lines, like the following, frequently occur.

'No sp'rit so meek, that while the tumult *flam'd*
Around, could view it listless and *be-calm'd*.'

On the whole, it is a pleasing performance.

The Dog's Monitor, a Satirical Poem. By Major Henry Waller.
4to. 2s. Kearsley.

The story here related is the same we gave an account of in our last Volume, page 208, somewhat altered, and increased to double its size, by additional reflections and satirical remarks interwoven with it: several of which, though not very deep nor pointed, are lively and amusing. A Latin Proemium, in monkish rhyme, is annexed, in which defiance is hurled to some monthly Journalists, who treated the major's last publication, as he apprehends, with improper severity. It contains some strokes of humour, but will hardly stand the test of grammatical criticism.

A Whimsical Rhapsody on Taxes and Balloons. 8vo. 3d. Debrett.

The author has given the character of this fugitive sheet in the title.—It is whimsical and a rhapsody; but as much is said about

about Mr. Pitt as of taxes and balloons. The author might also add, that he is no more an admirer of the minister than of the more particular subjects of the poem. There is however some shrewdness occasionally in the remarks, though we cannot boast of the powers of our new ally, in opposition to balloons. We shall select a short specimen.

‘ And what’s the end of all this pompous stuff,
Which philosophic fools so idly puff?
Say what advantage can it bring mankind?
Can it assist the lame, the sick, the blind?
Oh! no! ’tis children’s play; the school-boy’s kite
Can soar as well, tho’ not so great a height.
We know the principle, and ’twere much better
T’ assist the poor, the pris’ner to unfetter
With our spare wealth, than thus amuse the nation
With useless vanity and vain vexation.’

N O V E L S.

The History of Sir Henry Clarendon. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Baldwin.

A hero and a heroine, each endowed with every perfection, must see each other by chance, and become instantly enamoured. They must labour through two or three volumes; and, if no churlish father, or ambitious aunt, is in the way, they must have a reasonable quantity of doubt and suspicion, infused by false friends. The lady too, may be forced away by a disappointed lover, and rescued miraculously. At last, one or other must be near death, either by accident or premeditated violence, and may recover or not, according to the disposition of the author. This is the skeleton of a modern novel: sentiments, character, or language, are of little consequence; and such is the flimsy texture of *Sir Henry Clarendon*, with a very scanty share of merit in these necessary additions.

The Conquests of the Heart. A Novel. By a Young Lady. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Baldwin.

This young lady endeavours to assist ‘the cause of morality and virtue’ with success. The tale indeed is not very new or interesting; though it be a little superior to the common class. The character of *Miss Adams* is a correct outline; but rather too much like that of *Madame Duval*, and we think she might have been employed a little more in deranging the designs of the heroine. The old servant of *Mr. Denier*, and his little story, are truly pathetic; and the letter from *Diana D’Avila*, is written with tenderness, and a just acquaintance with the human heart: we hope, in the scenes of distress, our fair author has never copied from her own feelings. We wish to cherish this tender bud; for we guess that it may expand with a more varied foliage, and more vivid colours, when time shall have advanced it to greater maturity.

The Vale of Glendor; or the Memoirs of Emily Westbrook. 2 Vols.
12mo. 6s. Noble.

This is a pleasing little history; but with few striking excellencies. It is 'a simple tale, in simple guise,' and contains a very useful lesson. Let no ambitious fair-one, who wishes to dazzle the Ring with her equipage, or the circle with her diamonds, sacrifice to this childish splendour a real attachment. The affections may be, by this means, for a time concealed; but they will return with double fervour. If it should happen, that the weak attractions for a moment prevail, let her, like Emily, be wise in time, and she will be happy. But, on the other hand, this is no argument to support the propriety of a romantic attachment, in opposition to a prudent attention to futurity. The contest is between inclination, supported by reason, and a title; not between the gay lively fortune-hunter, recommended only by the fancy, and the more respectable choice of an anxious parent.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Confilia; or Thoughts upon several Subjects. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d.
Cadell.

The author informs us, that 'he would have great reason to lament his labour, if he could for a moment suspect, that they, viz. the remarks, will be perused with greater attention to the ability of the performance, than to the plain undisguised advice it contains. We have looked therefore rather at the substance than the form; and where we have approved his sentiments (and we have scarcely ever had reason to disapprove of them) we have only regretted that his observations have not been more extensive. The author's benevolence is indeed considerable: his 'moral remarks on life at large, and the conduct requisite to make that life happy,' deserve the attention of the younger part of mankind. But we may be allowed to hint, that they would probably be more acceptable to those for whom they are intended, if the author had not been so sparing of ornament. The beauty of virtue is intrinsic; and cannot be known till she is attained. It is the business of the moralist, therefore, to make the attainment easy and agreeable.

A Treatise on the Principles of Hair-dressing. By William Barker, Hair-dresser. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bew.

Our 'man of taste', who seems to have a 'genius for style,' has really collected some valuable and useful observations, on a subject apparently trifling. The deformities of modern hair-dressing are indeed numerous; and we fear that no approaches to fashion can be made consistent with true beauty. Yet so great is the power, so enchanting the magic of a beautiful woman, that nothing can deform or disguise her. The folly

* See page 18.

of to-day may be succeeded by one not quite so old, and yet her influence is unremitting. Our author seems calculated to improve his art; for, with all his attention to portraits and statues, he has even cultivated his taste in hair dressing, from the precepts of the immortal Shakspeare: such is the power of genius, that it can extract information from every source. While this philosophical hair-dresser and his system remains, let no unhallowed artist presume to wield his comb, or shake his powder puff! May his arms be as sacred as those of Orlando!

As a specimen of his 'taste' and 'style,' we shall select the following short passage.

'The case is reversed when we consider the lovely Hebe of eighteen, whom nature is luxuriantly labouring to crown with a profusion of gifts, such as the animated cheek dimpled with smiles, the sparkling eye beaming with joy,—the residence of a million of charms; and the neck with that highest finish, the hair; then the chaste hand of taste, guided by judgment, should be employed to check its wildness, and conduct with elegance each waving lock, into that maze of irregular charms it is so prompt of itself to form, when inclined to curl.—To guide, not alter Nature, is the business of a hair-dresser.'

The Complete Constable. By John Paul, Esq. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Fielding.

This seems a pretty accurate account of the *present* office of constable, from the best authorities. The constable, says our compiler, is supposed to be 'the stability of the place, or the strong man of the division.' But this etymology is probably erroneous. *Comes stabuli*, the usual one, is no less exceptionable; for the office was originally considerable, and conferred on the highest rank. Perhaps *comes stabilis* may be the more probable derivation, as the constable, at some periods, rather resembled a civil officer, and this title may have been given in contradistinction to the military chief, whose office was less confined. We still retain the title in the constable of the Tower, Dover Castle, and some other places: the high and petty constable, our author's chief objects, are inconsiderable branches of this ancient dignity.

An Account of the Scotch Society at Norwich. The Second Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.

We have already given an account of the institution of this Society*, which reflects no small honour on the humanity of its members, and particularly Dr. Murray, to which it is chiefly indebted for its existence. To an account of the Society, and the several addresses of the gentlemen above mentioned, are added, in the present edition, the songs which were sung at a general meeting of this laudable institution last year.

* Critical Review for April, 1784.

An authentic Narrative of the Treatment of the English who were taken Prisoners on the Reduction of Bednore, by Tippoo Saib. By Captain Henry Oakes. 8vo. 2s. Kearsley.

This Narrative is published from a manuscript written by captain Oakes, adjutant-general to the army under the command of general Mathews. It states the hardships and cruelties which our people suffered; but makes no mention of the cause which could have excited Tippoo Saib to such barbarity. It appears however, by the account of lieutenant Sheene, of the first battalion of seapoys, printed in an Appendix to the Narrative, that Tippoo Saib had been inflamed with resentment for cruelties committed by the English troops; and that, in the transactions which followed the reduction of Bednore, he acted upon the principle of retaliation.

Thoughts on executive Justice, with Respect to our Criminal Laws, particularly on the Circuits. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Doddsley.

The English penal law has been accused of severity, and, like that of Draco, said to be written in blood. It will appear astonishing therefore, while every plea has been allowed in mitigation of the penalties which the law has ordained for different offences, to observe an advocate contending for the strictest execution of them. But we think our very intelligent author has said enough to induce us again to examine the question, and to doubt whether pardon is not sometimes the greatest cruelty: he would be severe, 'only to be kind.' The frequency of executions, and the numerous victims so frequently offered to the shrine of justice, give the most exquisite pain to the feelings of humanity. Would you then increase this unhappy crowd, erect additional gibbets, and recruit your formidable band of executioners? This is not our author's intention; the slackness of justice is, he thinks, an encouragement to vice; and frequent reprieves are found only to have hardened the offenders. It is certainly an indisputable fact, that where the guilty never escape, crimes are comparatively uncommon.

We are at least convinced that our present mode is unfavourable to public security; and that the subordinate punishments are the nurseries of future, often of more flagitious, crimes. Consequently our author's plan deserves attention: but perhaps it should not be revived without a proper notice; without a public denunciation of justice against every capital offender; without a solemn warning of impending punishment, and of the necessity of reformation.

This essay is written, a few passages only excepted, with propriety, and often with elegance. But we are surprised that an author, who could write so well, should talk of 'ousting offenders of their clergy.' The Royal Society once endeavoured to alter the preterperfect of *read to redde*, but without success;

our

our author constantly writes 'red.' These are innovations which we cannot approve, because no inconvenience or obscurity can easily arise from the usual spelling.

The Complete Wall-tree Pruner, &c. By John Abercrombie. 12mo. 3s. Bladon.

The pruning wall-trees is an art in which common gardeners are less skilful than in the other duties of their employment. Mr. Abercrombie's great experience enables him to afford instruction on this subject; and the rules which he delivers must therefore prove useful.

The Propagation and Botanical Arrangements of Plants and Trees. By John Abercrombie. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. in Boards. Debrett.

In this treatise Mr. Abercrombie delivers not only the theory and principles of this department of gardening, but the commonly received practice. In general, however, his observations are too trite to be interesting; and he is often not sufficiently explicit to afford satisfactory information. To this we may add, that the botanical arrangements are imperfect; and that the method according to which he has divided agricultural plants, favours more of affectation than of utility.

A new Vocabulary of the most difficult Words in the English Language. By William Fry. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Sold by the Author.

Mr. Fry, not content with giving words, which are only what we ought to expect in a vocabulary, has swelled his work with common phrases from the Latin and French, translated into English, and with apophthegms ancient and modern. Nor is this all: for we also find in the Vocabulary, a new method of calculating the sun's diameter. We can only say, that the man who should desire greater variety of materials in a Vocabulary, would be very unreasonable.

Bannister's Reports. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Fielding.

This pamphlet is otherwise entitled, 'A Series of Adjudications before Lord Chief Justice Joker, in his Majesty's High Court of Wit, Humour, and Fun.' Did any such court exist in the kingdom, this author would certainly be cashiered as one of the greatest dunces that had ever appeared before it. He has no pretensions to any connection with the court of Momus.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A Genevan may read the article he mentions in our Review for October, 1784.

The Critical Reviewers are obliged to A. B. for his Letter of April 2.

The Request of X. Y. Z. is under consideration.

